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ABSTRACT

This book reflects the views and experiences of mid-career educators representing a number of countries who participated in seminars on international development education at the University of Connecticut (Storrs) from 1979-1988. Chapter 1 defines the concepts of international development and global interaction, considers global images, describes the relationship between development and education, and explains the role of international development educators. Chapter 2 provides a literature review of various international development perspectives, while chapter 3 offers instructional suggestions for teaching about: (1) population; (2) food and hunger; (3) human rights and social justice; (4) conflict resolution; and (5) global interdependence and development processes. Chapter 4 provides information on specific international development organizations, and chapter 5 explains how to obtain financial support for international development education-related projects. Chapter 6 identifies current issues in this field, while chapter 7 presents case studies of related education projects. Annotated bibliographies and/or resource lists are included in most chapters. A glossary of terms, class activities, maps, and charts are included. (JHP)

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LEARNING FOR CHANGE:

APPROACHES TO INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION

Frank Andrews Stone

International Development Education Series,

Number Five

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This book grew out of graduate seminars on international development education taught in the Department of Educational Studies and Instructional Media at the School of Education, The University of Connecticut, starting in 1979. Enrolled in the seminars were mid-career educators from China, Egypt, Ghana, Iran, Israel, Jamaica, Korea, and Nepal - as well as community development educators from the United States. The concepts that are presented here reflect many of their perspectives and priorities. Their valuable experiences and insights contributed much to the process of understanding the roles education can have in international development.

My preparation for working in the field of international development education included studying with mentors like the late Dr. Kenneth Melvin of New Zealand, and Dr. Theodore Brameld at Boston University. As an educator in the Republic of Turkey for fourteen years, I was privileged to participate in village work-camping projects and rural school construction. Also, I was able to observe the formation of the Turkish Development Foundation (Türkiye Kalkınma Vakfı) ably led by a former student, Altan Zeki Ünver, for the past twenty years. As a visiting professor at Hacettepe University, Ankara, Turkey I learned many new ideas about good development approaches and strategies in 1969-1970. This book benefitted from the cordial sharing of knowledge and experiences by my colleagues and graduate students there.

More recently I have observed community development education projects in the region of Haifa, Israel and in João Pessoa, State of Paraiba, Brazil. Participating in conferences in Mexico City, Kingston, Jamaica, Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic, Basterre, St. Christopher and Nevis, Caracas, Venezuela, and Belize City, Belize has made me more aware of the critical development issues in the Caribbean and Latin America. Here at home, too, I've been involved in several educational development projects located in Connecticut cities and towns.

Words of appreciation are also owed to my colleagues in the Association for World Education (AWE), The Society for Educational Reconstruction (SER), and The World Education Fellowship (WEF). All of these organizations attract change oriented educators who, over the years, have addressed many fundamental development issues.

Many documentary sources were required for this inquiry and the generous cooperation of the staffs of the Homer D. Babbidge Library at The University of Connecticut, and the J. Willard Marriott Library at The University of Utah helped me to obtain them. During the fall of 1985 I was a Visiting Scholar at the Middle East Center of The University of Utah, Salt Lake City, where major portions of this manuscript were written. I want to express my gratitude for their cordial hospitality to my hosts, Dr. Lee L. Bean, Director, and Dr. Robert L. Staab, Assistant Director.

During the past eighteen years many of my field trips have been funded, in whole or in part, by The University of Connecticut Research Foundation. This vital support is gratefully acknowledged.

Throughout my career as an international development educator my wife, Barbara, and our children, David Taner, Ruth Sevim, Beth Alev, and Priscilla Gülen have been at my side. Their loving support has made the work possible. I hope that through enlightened educational efforts we can somehow form a better world in which human rights are respected, social justice prevails, and peace reigns by the time our three year-old granddaughter, Megan Elizabeth, reaches maturity.

Frank A. Stone
Storrs, Connecticut
July, 1987

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FOREWORD

Today over one hundred million people around the world are busy with activities based on the nine hundred thousand million dollars that is being annually spent on armaments and military operations. They may be working as bureaucrats, engineers, laborers, pilots, sailors, scientists, soldiers, or technicians. At least fifty million well trained and highly educated individuals in the world are members of military establishments. Another fifty million or more people, globally, supply the intermediate goods and services that are paid for from military budgets. Many more millions of the world's population are affected by national defense and military policies everywhere.

Viewed from the perspective of educational development it must be recognized that all of these human beings who are having direct or indirect military careers are able-bodied men and women. Most of them must have at least a high school level of education because modern military technology is very complex and sophisticated. Significant numbers of them were prepared as managers, planners, professionals, and technicians. The decision to deploy their energies, knowledge, and skills in the military rather than the civilian sphere has far-reaching economic and social consequences.[1]

Not all military effort, of course, is inimical to cultural, economic, political, and social progress. The armed forces of many countries have provided opportunities for good educations and upward mobility for boys from poor families. Social modernization has often begun with a nation's military establishment. Highways, production resources, and storage areas may be constructed using military manpower and at least partially justified on the basis of national security needs. Army engineers often undertake projects that are in the national interest such as flood control or rehabilitation after a natural disaster. The navy may survey the coastline and dredge habors serving civilian as well as military interests.

The fact of the matter is, however, that even after generous allowances have been made for any benefits that derive from military growth and expenditures, the armed forces of the world are using up huge amounts our resources. They are a drain on

everybody's well educated and highly trained personnel. In the face of this twentieth century military Goliath, it may appear foolhearty to issue a book concerning peaceful international development through education. Certainly the human resources and funds available for initiating basic development projects are not comparable to those going into the global arms race. Yet David can still confront Goliath.

The consequences of underdevelopment are highly visible everywhere. Today millions of people suffer from hunger, illness, illiteracy, and lack of employment. Many social scientists argue that these evil conditions are the root causes of intergroup conflicts and warfare. They claim that national security can best be served by defending human rights and social justice. If hostilities and wars are ever to cease, we must learn their causes. We must find out why so many societies have failed to develop normally, and be prepared to help local people bring about change. This means that attitudes of social awareness and global responsibility have to be cultivated in the formative years of each person's life. Families, schools, and voluntary learning groups all have important roles to play in encouraging positive development aspirations.

It is quite evident what qualities are needed in order to have educators who are capable of encouraging worthwhile development.[2]

Attitudes

There must be respect for the ideas, opinions, and rights of all people. Development educators need to have positive feelings about the life styles of other people. They must have the capacity to engage in critical thinking about the sources and meaning of information. Educators who undertake development projects have to possess a sense of responsibility for helping their constituencies bring about the changes needed if world society is to survive. They must have a commitment to be risk takers in order to test out new ways of doing things. They also must believe that as individuals, and members of groups, each person can and should make a contribution to international development. Modern teacher education in most parts of the world, unfortunately, doesn't foster attitudes such as these.

Knowledge

International development educators, in order to be competent teachers and effective change agents, must command some types of

knowledge. They must know, for example, how people live in other parts of the world according to their indigenous values and traditions. They need to be conscious of the inequities and tensions in their own communities and societies. They must have at least the beginnings of fluency in a second language besides their mother tongue.

Other vital knowledges for international development educators include acquaintance with group and organizations dynamics. They must know how movements make impacts on society and be aware of how social processes operate. They have to know about the complex web of economic, political, religious, social, and technological variables that function in development programs. Also, they must know that only a part of the knowledge that they need can ever come from formal sources. Much must be learned directly from the people involved in a development project - especially concerning their culture, human relations, social affairs, and values.

Knowing one's own limitations is, paradoxically, one of the most important knowledges for international development educators. We must know what can be contributed by individuals in the way of resources, skills, and services - as well as recognizing those development aspects that can only occur when there is a broad social consensus. Some things can be accomplished one on one, others require intergroup cooperation. We need to be aware of the negative, as well as the positive, aspects of the policies we advocate. Cognitively we must be generalists who engage in interdisciplinary and global learning, knowing full well all of the risks that this involves in many specialized fields. We have to know about the interdependence that underlies all of life. Thus we'll realize that every human being and each society interfaces with the rest of the world. Exploitation and injustice anywhere, therefore, are travesties on all humanity.

Action

International development education differs from many other academic fields by being an applied discipline. We must move through the customary analyses, comparisons, and observations toward making commitments and undertaking initiatives

What are some of the actions we could take as educators for community and intercultural development?

We can help educate about development issues through exhibits, the media, street dramas, and fund raising events. We can try to influence the aid, trade, and military policies of our own government. We can work to establish some positive links with individuals and groups in our local or global "Third Worlds." We can lend a hand to development programs and projects, distant or nearby. We can evaluate the effects of development efforts. These are all practical means of translating our study of education for development into interventions

Study Formats

The material in this manual was planned for use in seminars that meet for several hours each week over a period of fourteen weeks. These are the activities envisioned.

Meetings One and Two	Introducing the concepts and terms related with education for international development.
Meetings Three and Four	Reports about eight to ten alternative perspectives about development.
Meetings Five and Six	Workshops on teaching about global development issues.
Meeting Seven	Discussion of support strategies for carrying our education for development projects.
Meeting Eight	Getting acquainted with the panorama of educational development organizations that function in the world.
Meeting Nine	Oral presentations of actual mini-development project proposals by seminar members.
Meetings Ten and Eleven	Investigating some of the current issues in the field of international development education.
Meetings Twelve and Thirteen	Case Studies on International Development education projects.
Meeting Fourteen	Sharing duplicated copies of each person's revised educational development project proposal.

If at all feasible, the individuals in a seminar on education for development should use what they learn in a supervised practicum. It could be an internship in which they actively plan, implement, and evaluate a project. They will also need to get involved with some cross-cultural support networks, so that they won't be isolated when they proceed with their careers as international development educators.

The readers of this book are warmly welcomed into the domain of education for community and social transformation. A huge amount of documentation and thousands of projects have been generated in this field. No society in the world today is without programs that are intended to contribute to its development goals through learning processes. May the users of this manual become better prepared to participate positively as professional educators in these vital activities.

NOTES

1 See "The Sinews of War," in a special issue on "Swords into Plowshares - Disarmament and Development," The UNESCO Courier, March, 1982, p. 12. Current data can be obtained from an annual survey: Ruth Leger Sivard, World Military and Social Expenditures. Leesburg, VA: World Priorities, Inc.

An international conference of non-governmental organizations on the topic "Disarmament and Development" met in Brussels, Belgium in the spring of 1982. Seventy specific action proposals were made at this meeting to be a "shopping list" for groups planning campaigns and programs. See: International Conference of NGO's, Disarmament - Development. Brussels: Cté Nat. Action Paix & Développement, 1982.

2 Some of these ideas were adapted from: Development Education: The School Open to the Third World. A European Development Education Workshop, Bergendal, Stockholm, Sweden, November, 1970. Rome: Freedom from Hunger Campaign, 1970.

"Where, after all, do universal human rights begin? In small places, close to home - so close and so small that they cannot be seen on any maps of the world . . . Such are the places where every man, woman and child seeks equal justice, equal opportunity, equal dignity without discrimination. Unless these rights have meaning there, they have little meaning anywhere."

Eleanor Roosevelt
United States representative
to the United Nations
1958

Chapter One

INTRODUCTION

The practice of designing various types of teaching and learning in order to contribute to progress is very old - virtually ageless. Since the socio-economic movements that are known in western civilization as the renaissance, the agrarian and the industrial revolutions, and the enlightenment, however, the role in modernization that is assigned to educational processes has greatly enlarged. Also, everywhere in the world where rapid change is taking place the developments, in themselves, are a kind of inescapable mass education. The new road or the coming of electricity lead to new perceptions, higher aspirations and revised outlooks on the world. Educationally, the advent of cheap transistor radios may have been as significant as the erection of thousands of new school buildings.

Modern education for international development dates back to the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. It was at this time that European and Ottoman colonial expansion began. Soon representatives of the metropolitan nations were travelling to what they regarded as peripheral lands in order to bestow the blessings of their civilization. Admittedly, with a mercantilist mentality this was usually done with the greatest of care not to either enlighten or empower the natives to the point where they might reject the policies of the imperial regime. This type of cross-cultural learning was vastly expanded with the growth of Christian and Muslim missionology in the late eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

Today the trend is toward greater self-sufficiency along with the recognition of global interdependence. Usually development efforts are under indigenous direction. But the brief sketch of the origins of education for international development helps us realize that the notion that it all started with aid programs after World War Two is wrong. It is true, however, that many new agencies and organizations became involved with international development programs and projects after 1950.

The concept of the desirability of international development has been popularized and widely disseminated by the three decades especially devoted to this issue by the United Nations. Each succeeding United Nations development decade has been characterized by certain attitudes. The predominant notion during the 1950's

was that the experts from affluent western nations best knew how to develop the rest of the world. Countries that then lacked an adequate industrial capacity would simply be groomed to replicate the growth in technology and production of the rich societies. Then, they too, could become wealthy. The heavy investments for buying machinery, building plants, and training managers and technicians were largely paid for through programs such as the British Colombo Plan and the Marshall Plan of the United States.

The scene had shifted by the 1960's. Now it was recognized that investments in the less developed industrial infrastructures, alone, were not enough. Composite economic development planning began to be the preferred strategy. Many national five year comprehensive development plans were adopted in countries that previously hadn't engaged in this type of social engineering. Establishing central development planning agencies became the order of the day in many nations. Most of them were still geared toward industrialization and raising the gross national product of the society, but increasingly the agricultural, educational and health sectors also received attention.

The basic goals that had been articulated in the various national five year plans were attained, at least in some cases, but frequently it had become apparent that the successes were at the expense of other sectors of the society. For example, it was during the 1960's that the great flood of internal population mobility started in many countries. Using the newly built roads, thousands of people left their rural villages all over the world. The mass media told them about urban life, and they crowded into the shantytowns surrounding the big cities.

Expanding the national education system usually had a high priority in the overall plan, but it happened that much of the development in this area actually took place in the urban areas. Not many teachers were willing to go to the villages to serve the rural schools. So a new center versus periphery condition was produced in many nations. Now the opportunities for enlightenment and advancement were in the cities. People turned their backs on rural reconstruction. This was another factor pushing people out of the farming areas and pulling them onto the city streets.

New definitions of development were again being formulated in the decade of the 1970's. Development experts now began to emphasize a more equitable distribution of resources and opportunities. Along with intelligent technology transfers, they wanted

to strengthen the indigenous cultures. It came to be realized that most of the previous models of development had been borrowed uncritically from Europe, North America or the Soviet Union. The bad aspects of military alliances and transnational corporations began to be apparent. Military spending soared while vital needs were left unanswered. The transnational corporations often exploited pools of cheap labor while contributing little to basic improvement of the social conditions. At the same time, the world economy was under so much stress and strain that inflation and recession, euphemistically termed "stagflation," was the order of the day almost everywhere. The old methods of international aid and assistance had to be revamped. Donor nations no longer had such large surpluses with which to work. Client states were demanding a greater degree of mutuality in development efforts.

The trend seems to be moving away from the typical bilateral arrangements between governments. Now it is more usual for a group of countries such as the European Community to enter into a negotiated set of agreements with a consortium of recipient nations. In our hemisphere the vehicle for this type of collaboration is often the Organization of American States. Another channel is the Arab League. In the mid-1980's it is the clients, themselves, rather than the counterpart specialists from overseas who establish their needs and priorities, and make the basic policy decisions. Most of the power is still wielded from national capitols, but many more initiatives come from regional or local sources. It is recognized that effective development will have to take place at the grass roots.

These days fewer grand schemes designed by the experts in central agencies are being initiated because the funds with which to support them have evaporated. Emphasis is still being placed on achieving nationwide literacy and providing a basic education for all citizens. The problem is that constructing and staffing schools and other institutions of learning gets ever more costly. So there is now more stress on alternative education - frequently through non-formal approaches.

The Concept of Education for International Development

When we examine the ideas associated with education for international development it becomes clear that this is a complex concept. The term, international, for example, refers to affairs

involving two or more nation-states. It also encompasses issues concerning the various nationalities or ethnic groups that reside within the boundaries of a single country. In many ways the leaders of corporations that do business in more than one country are as vital to international development education policy-making as are elected officials, civil servants or professional educators. After all, the annual budgets of Shell Oil, General Motors, or International Business Machines may considerably exceed those of many nations. There are also many agencies and organizations that are global in scope and that transcend the boundaries of national interests. They, too, are part of what is included in our use of the word, "international."

There are many definitions of development, but the one used in this book is:

> . . . efforts to move from a condition that is regarded as less than satisfactory toward one that is closer to optimum through planned change or growth.[1]

When we think about development we must remember that it doesn't necessarily imply that progress will always be made. In some cases a constituency may prefer things as they are, or may even opt to try to get back to a previously more satisfactory state of affairs. Although improving present conditions in general is invariably the articulated goal of a development program or project, this doesn't mean that all aspects of the status quo have to be changed. We also must recognize that whether a revolutionary approach or more gentle gradualism is advocated, every development program has side effects that may damage the situation in the long run. You pave the roads and then have many more accidents than used to happen because now traffic is motorized and people can speed. Everyone now earns a primary school diploma and then nobody is willing to do the heavy jobs that used to be done by unskilled laborers. Refrigeration may make meat much more available making it a popular food and the prices go up so high that many people can no longer afford to eat meat at all. The instances are endless. Rather than meliorating the constraints under which the majority of people have to live, the development program or project may actually worsen them.

As we will see later on, there are a number of interrelated development domains. For instance, personal maturation and the

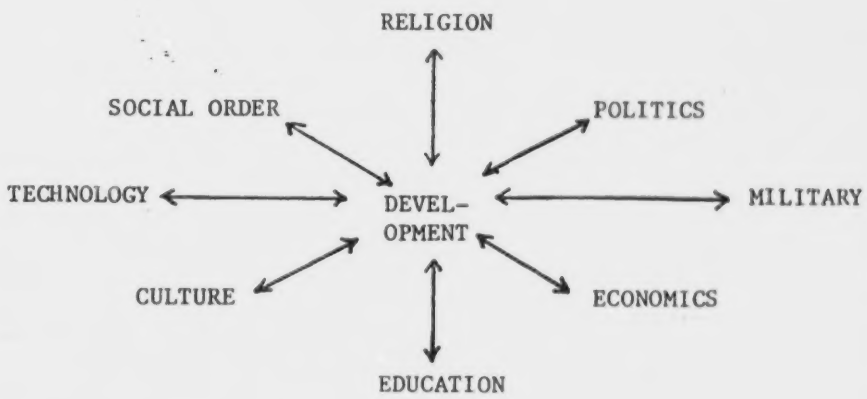
forming of a healthy self-identity always must be an important part of any development thinking. There are also the interfacing areas of cultural, economic, political, religious and social development. Often development has been conceived of by economists as the means of strengthening the productive infrastructure of a society. In some cases, priority is rather given to developing more extensive communications networks or building a better transportation system. Political scientists stress that development depends upon more enlightened decisions and efficient national management by a modern bureaucracy. Sociologists emphasize intergroup dynamics and community development projects.

Our particular focus, of course, is directed toward educational development. This is not confined to expanding the school system or disseminating higher learning. It entails instituting a whole range of new policies, programs and practices as "inputs." These will hopefully improve the "outputs" in the form of better attitudes, knowledges, information, skills and understanding that people learn. Clearly, then, education for international development is a complex manifold that has many aspects and dimensions that impact on one another.

We are talking, then, about the field of development planning or development studies, of which education for international development is one specific type. Broadly conceived, development studies include all inquiries of cultural, economic, military, political, religious, social and technological issues and problems that are encountered when societies undergo change. Because education always functions within the fabric of the whole society, studying about educational development policies and programs requires us to become better informed about the related areas that interface with education.

It is obvious that development planning and studies of this complex field must be interdisciplinary. One of the best ways to approach the field is to employ ethnographic and sociological tools. Most development specialists have to acquire considerable historical data and know a great deal about the ecology of the area in which they are working. Commonly, macro- and micro-economics have been used by development planners, and political science methodologies are also frequently employed. For example, there may be investigations of what schools prepared the elite of a nation, or studies of voting patterns. Although they have less often been brought to bear, the humanities such as art, language and literature, and philosophy also can contribute to integral comprehension of development processes.

CHART ONE: FACTORS THAT INTERACT IN DEVELOPMENT



Education for development, itself, is any form of teaching and learning that is designed to improve the culture, economy, political order, religious system, or the social and technological processes of a community, region or society. The development education is intentional and purposive, but, as we have already noted, there are also broader educative effects of the changes themselves. An all weather road is constructed connecting a village that previously was isolated to the outside world. Now its populace regularly go to local markets. They can sell or barter their surplus produce and obtain commodities that didn't used to reach their homes. Simply by becoming more mobile and having experiences with new items, these people are obtaining information, knowledge, skills and insights. In other words, experiencing change, often in the form of modernization, is itself educative.

It may also be miseducative. Although the older radical contrast between traditional societies that were thought to be backward and static, and modern ones that were supposed to be more dynamic is no longer believed to be so great, it is still true that basic changes in the social infastructure do alter the ways people think and behave. And not always for the better.

It is a truism that less developed societies are also likely to have less corruption. The opportunity for exploitation exists to a greater extent when there is central management, an official bureaucracy, a "modern" sector, and import/export operations. There are forms of tourism that breed local crime and delinquency. The old bribe of a carton of cigarettes or a bottle of liquor becomes the "under-the-table" exchange of thousands or even millions of dollars secreted in some unnumbered Swiss bank account. The moral fibre of society is corrupted - often by the nation's leaders. As the Turkish folk saying puts it, "Balik baştan kokar." (Fish stink from the head.)

Development Images

We conceive things by using mental pictures or "images" that convey the ways we think about domains of life. There are several of these conceptual paradigms that are commonly linked with notions about development. One of the most pervasive is the idea of "developed" nations, meaning industrialized or post-industrial states. We picture them with factories, highways, high levels of consumption, and great efficiency. They are supposed to exhibit the common characteristics of a high degree of work specialization, making provisions for extensive public services, and a distribution of income that prevents abject poverty and famine. In global terms most of the "developed" nations are located in the northern hemisphere. It is important to remember, however, that there are affluent pockets within otherwise poor societies. There are also "cultures of poverty" even in the richest nations.

It is possible to visit casinos in Egypt and Lebanon where the wealthy few spend their idle hours in luxury within societies where the great majority of the people are barely able to eke out a living. Flying into Brazil, our plane comes in for its approach to the airport over miles of favela shantytowns. Here poor migrants live surrounding the high rise commercial hubs of Rio de Janeiro, San Paulo or Recife where millions of cruzeiros change hands every day.

The image of "underdeveloped" or "less developed" nations or regions contrasts with these views of those in the "developed" category. The condition of underdevelopment entails a lack of productive capacity. We picture it as small-scale hand manufacturing and shops that contain only a few rudimentary supplies. Less developed nations have relatively few natural resources, or have not used the resources at their disposal. They lack modern industrial capacity. Their political institutions are few and not

very inclusive. Many citizens of under- or less developed states live at or below the poverty level. They are likely to suffer from undernourishment and lack upward mobility. Ignorance, disease and a lack of basic sanitation are other typical indicators of underdevelopment.

Although most of the "underdeveloped" nations are in the southern hemisphere, we must again recognize that the same conditions exist in the depressed parts of societies that are generally better off. For example, inner city ghetto neighborhoods in prosperous metropolitan centers like Boston, New York, Detroit and Los Angeles all have the characteristics of underdevelopment. They exist in Appalachia and parts of the deep South. In other words, the need for devising educational strategies to combat the evils of underdevelopment is not just overseas. We must address these issues in East Africa, Southeast Asia and the Caribbean; but we must also assist people in the decaying slums of American mill towns and the filthy tenements of many of our cities.

Millions of the citizens of the United States of America are tragically underfed, poorly housed, unemployed functional illiterates. Education for international development thus has to be global in its purview. Development educators must recognize these crises at home as well as the persistent problems in other parts of the world.

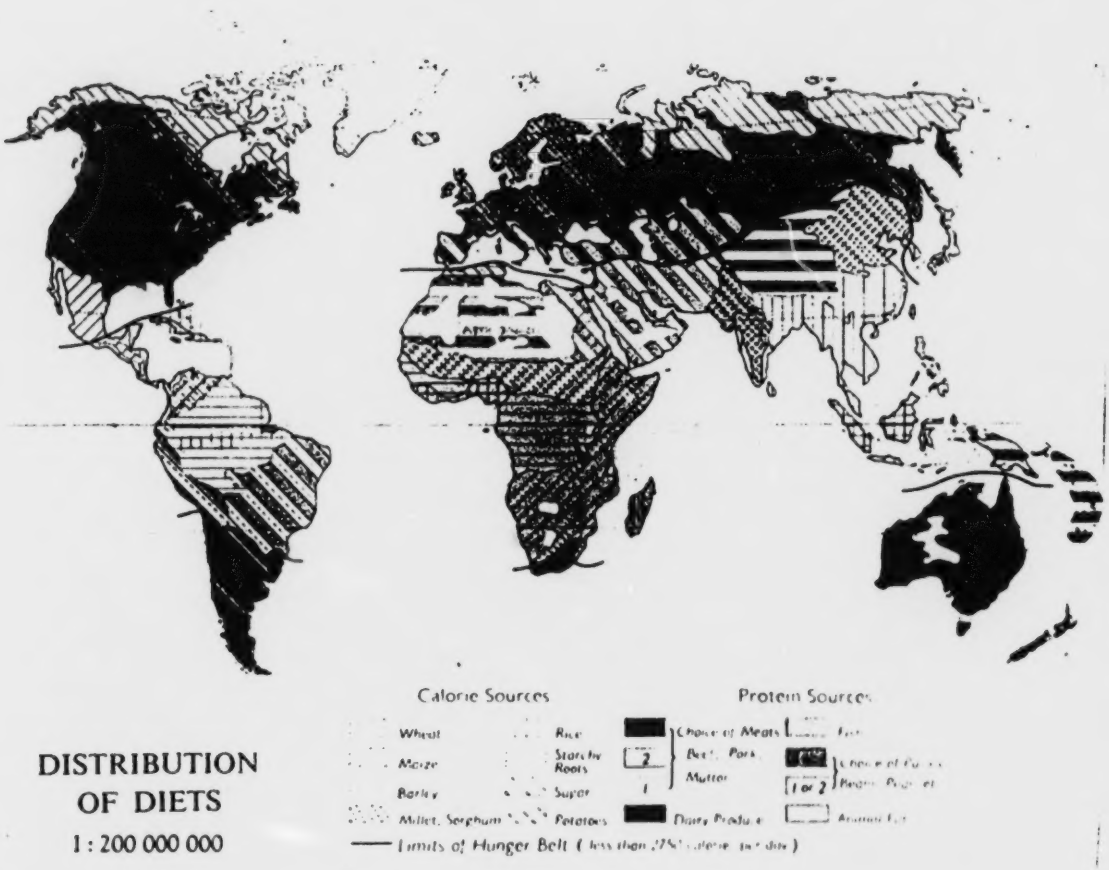
According to another conceptual framework that is often used, the world is thought of as being grouped into three or four main categories. Originally, this was the product of the "cold war" between the two "superpowers": the Soviet Union and the United States. This model designates western Europe as the "First World" or the "Free World." In part, this is an euphemism for the wealthiest nations. Partly, it is a political and military term for those countries that belong to the "Atlantic Community" through being affiliated with the NATO alliance.

Viewed from this perspective, the Soviet Union and all of the states associated with it through the Warsaw Pact and other treaties constitute the "Second World." They are behind the "Iron Curtain." Economically and militarily these countries are regarded as being in a less advantaged position than "First World" nations.

Observing the dangerous confrontation that has been produced by the "First World" and "Second World" images of being on a collision course, the leaders of a number of nations that weren't directly allied with either block began to designate their homelands as "Third World" countries. Originally the term was meant

MAP ONE

THE THIRD WORLD



The Third World is the area included within the limits of the Hunger Belt on this map of the world. The average daily intake of calories per person here is less than 2750 calories.
Source: *The Times Atlas of the World, Seventh Comprehensive Edition.* Edinburgh, Scotland: John Bartholomew and Son, Ltd., and Times Books Ltd, 1985, Plate 6.

to identify nations whose governments were pursuing relatively independent political policies, rather than being aligned with either of the superpowers. Soon, however, the words "Third World" also indicated predominately non-Caucasian societies, racially. Most of them are located in the southern hemisphere of the globe.

Third World nations have per capita incomes that are much less than those of First World or Second World countries. The industrial systems of these lands are less sophisticated. Usually their monetary sources are more limited, and they have a dirth of venture capital. Military or fascist regimes rule Third World countries in many cases.

Although the term used to designate them hasn't become as widespread as "Third World", by the 1970's it was evident that the world contains about thirty nations that are "the poorest of the poor." These are the societies where famine is common, infant mortality very high, malnutrition endemic, and the average life expectancy is as much as twenty years less than in more advantaged nations. These countries are now often referred to as the Fourth World. The United Nations' designation for them is "least developed."

The list of the world's Fourth World or "least developed" nations includes:

Afganistan	Lesotho
Bangladesh	Malawi
Benin	Maldives
Bhutan	Mali
Botswana	Nepal
Burundi	Niger
Cape Verde	Uganda
Central African Rep.	Rwanda
Rep. of the Comoros	Western Samoa
Ethiopia	Somalia
The Gambia	Sudan
Guinea	Tanzania
Guinea-Bissau	Chad
Haiti	Upper Volta
Laos	Yemen Arab Republic
Peoples' Democratic Republic of Yemen	

Between eighty and ninety percent of the entire labor force in most of these Fourth World countries works at subsistence agriculture. There are few industrial facilities in these "least developed" countries. Those that do exist are more likely to be family handicrafts rather than larger factories using power equipment and heavy machinery. Although rapidly growing, their urban centers are still few and relatively small. Nine out of ten people in these societies cannot read or write. Only a tiny proportion of the population has attained a primary level of formal schooling. The graduates of secondary schools or the universities form a very tiny cadre in a typical Fourth World nation.

More than 270 million people live in these "least developed" countries. They are the parts of the world still lacking even rudimentary school buildings. In many cases textbooks, instructional equipment, and furniture are in short supply. Secondary schools function in only a few places in these countries. The sole university is likely to be located in the national capitol. The professional educators in many Fourth World countries, themselves, have had only a bare minimum of formal preparation.

This brief overview of some of the persistent images pertaining to education for international development gives only a basic orientation to the field. The literature about development theories and strategies is vast. There is also a huge amount of material concerning the role of educational processes in meeting development aims and objectives. Some suggestions of sources of additional information are given at the end of this chapter. We will now shift the focus of our attention from the broad concept of development to the interfacings between development and education.

Relationships between Development and Education

It is important that we be able to recognize where educational processes contribute directly to development goals, where they have an indirect positive impact, and where educational programs and policies may actually impede or block the aims of development programs. Also, as was previously explained, we must realize that social changes and technological modernization, which result from development programs, are at the same time highly educative. They teach by popularizing aspirations, demonstrating new ways of behaving, and showing that alternative styles of living are possible. Simultaneously, this informal education provided by rapid social change also brings with it new kinds of confrontation, friction and violence. In other words, education both affects and is effected by development in positive and negative ways.

When we begin to frame development aims and objectives it becomes necessary to have a coherent ideology. At the universal and ideal level, humanity has cogently expressed broad educational goals in the "Declaration of the Rights of the Child" adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations on November 20, 1959. Among the ten basic rights that are set forth in that document, these six especially concern education for international development.

Right Number Two

The child shall enjoy special protection, and shall be given opportunities and facilities, by law and by other means, to enable him to develop physically, mentally, morally, spiritually and socially in a healthy and normal manner and in conditions of freedom and dignity. In the enactment of laws for this purpose the best interests of the child shall be the paramount consideration.

Right Number Four

The child shall enjoy the benefits of social security. He shall be entitled to grow and develop in health; to this end special care and protection shall be provided both to him and to his mother, including adequate pre-natal and post-natal care. The child shall have the right to adequate nutrition, housing, recreation and medical services.

Right Number Five

The child who is physically, mentally or socially handicapped shall be given the special treatment, education and care required by his particular condition.

Right Number Seven

The child is entitled to receive education, which shall be free and compulsory at least in the elementary stages. He shall be given an education which will promote his general culture, and enable him on the basis of equal opportunity to develop his abilities, his individual judgment, and his sense of moral and social responsibility; and to become a useful member of society. The best interests of the child shall be the guiding principle of those responsible for his education and guidance. That responsibility lies in the first place with his parents.

The child shall have full opportunity to play and recreation, which should be directed to the same purposes as education; society and the public authorities shall endeavor to promote enjoyment of this right.

Right Number Nine

The child shall be protected against all forms of neglect, cruelty and exploitation. He shall not be the subject of traffic in any form. The child shall not be admitted to employment before an appropriate minimum age; he shall in no case be caused or permitted to engage in any occupation or employment which would prejudice his health or education, or interfere with his physical, mental or moral development.

Right Number Ten

The child shall be protected from practices which may foster racial, religious and any other form of discrimination. He shall be brought up in a spirit of understanding, tolerance, friendship among peoples, peace and universal brotherhood, and a full consciousness that his energy and talents should be devoted to the service of his fellow men.

Although the "Declaration of the Rights of the Child" was written before the need for inclusive language was recognized, as it is today, certainly its provisions pertain to girls as well as to boys. Viewed from one perspective, the rights that are expounded may sound idealistic. If we consider them as the basic framework for the development of our own children, however, I think we might regard them as the bare minimal standards. Certainly, adhering to them will protect educational programs and projects in the international development sphere from being exploitative of the children and youth who are involved.

Specifically, we can use these criteria in order to assess educational policies, programs and practices. Doubtless, there will be some differences of opinion about what was intended by the General Assembly, due to diverse cultures and values. Yet on the whole these rights are remarkably clear and unambiguous. School systems and networks of alternative ways to learn in very few nations of the world could be judged completely healthy for children and youth if these ideals were rigorously applied. Simply becoming aware of them helps us to recognize our need for educational development at home and abroad.

There is a considerable variety of outlooks regarding the role that education should play in international development. Roughly, these perspectives tend to be of four main types. Two stress individual learning, claiming that when each citizen has obtained a good education the body politic will then be healthy. The other two views emphasize the social functions of education, claiming that the learning options that a society provides directly affect its structure and are a reflection of the dominant social system of that nation.

CHART THREE

TYPES OF EDUCATIONAL IDEOLOGIES

PERSONAL FULFILLMENT Education should give each individual optimum opportunities to reach their growth potential and achieve desired knowledge and skills.	SOCIAL REFORM Education presents more humane and just patterns of innovation in interpersonal and intergroup relations, thereby contributing to needed social evolution.
COMPETENCY ACHIEVEMENT Education must teach each individual basic skills and the productive capabilities necessary for them to function and contribute to society.	RADICAL CHANGE Education always reflects the controlling substructure of society. Therefore, this must be changed by revolutionary means in order for education to have a positive social role.
INDIVIDUAL ORIENTATION	SOCIAL ORIENTATION

Getting more specific, there are several typical aims of development programs to which education is unlikely to make a direct contribution. One of these is the goal of increasing the gross national product and strengthening the productive capacity of the society. While it is true that acquiring certain attitudes, types of knowledge and skills does normally make individuals more active and productive; it can also be argued that making direct investments in production machinery will produce quicker and bigger results than making indirect investments in learning facilities is likely to. In itself, there is little evidence that more formal education immediately affects production or consumption. In the long run, however, new types of learning do pack a considerable social wallop. The question is whether the society will trade deferred results for more immediate gratification.

Similarly, one of the primary current development targets is meeting the critical needs of the poorest people in society. It may seem that educational approaches are rather cumbersome ways of doing this. Wouldn't direct intervention with funds, food and services alleviate poverty faster? Obviously, this is not an "either/or" choice. There are many situations where there is no moral alternative to immediate material intervention. But this will relieve the symptoms of poverty only for the moment. The long term strategy has to be taken into consideration too, along with the side effects of each alternative policy option. Handouts may create dependency. They may foster learned incapacity. Malnutrition and disease will permanently blight their victims. What course of action ought to be followed?

In the words of the famous Chinese proverb:

Give me a fish
and I eat for a day,
Teach me to fish
and I can feed myself.

This way of thinking is particularly germane when we realize that much of the world that is poverty-stricken today was once self-sufficient. In many cases former food production was replaced with a single export crop economy, in which it is no longer rewarding to grow food for local consumption.

Under these circumstances, it is certainly more time consuming to use educational methods in order to provide meaningful learning activities. The personnel of the development program will have to collaborate with their clients if the instruction is to be effective. On the other hand, this approach is more likely to produce some lasting results. Further, it avoids or minimizes the evil side effects of simply applying subsistence funds, food doles and free services as "band aids" on profound social problems. The goals of education in situations such as these are permanently eliminating hunger and poverty in the society, as well as contributing to a more satisfactory and fulfilling way of life.

Increasing the human resources or "manpower" of a nation is another frequent role in development programs that is assigned to education. Formal and non-formal types of learning are the chief means that we have for multiplying human resources. Often this is done with a rationale of "investment" in facilities, faculty and instructional materials. It almost always involves technology transfer, acquiring new types of information and knowledge, and teaching specialized skills that can be applied in the workplace. Human resources development programs usually function on two related levels: vocational training to produce qualified technicians and other support personnel, and professional education to prepare the high-level specialists that the growing economy will require.

Yet another function of education in international development programs is political and social. National leaders come to realize that in order for participatory democracy to work, the citizens of their society must be socialized to recognize and support the nation's goals. They must acquire basic skills and attitudes. In many parts of the world, for example, this is the rationale of literacy campaigns. At the same time, it is argued, the common people need to learn how their government functions and get acquainted with its laws and regulations. This includes disseminating information about the national justice system, the tax code, and the penal system. There is little chance that the common citizens can use their ballot wisely if they remain ignorant of the national and world scene.

Finally, many development planners perceive an important role for education in preserving, or in many cases reviving, the national culture. This is the domain of archeology, art, dance, drama, literature and music. Often the cultural institutions that encourage endeavors in these fields are linked to the national ministry of education and their work is coordinated with the other aspects of the educational program.

CHART FOUR

ROLES FOR EDUCATION IN DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

SUBSISTENCE	HUMAN RESOURCES
Education teaches basic hygiene, food production, child nurture and nutrition in order to avert hunger and disease, and improve life for poor people.	Education prepares a pool of trained workers who will be qualified to enter needed vocations, and professionals who will be fitted for careers of leadership.
PRODUCTION	**CITIZENSHIP**
Education raises human aspirations and teaches appropriate attitudes and skills in order to increase national industrial productivity, distribution and consumption.	Education makes people literate and teaches them the functions of modern government so that they can effectively take part in democratic decision-making.

CULTURE

Education preserves and revives the national artistic and humanistic patrimony; both folk and elite.

The problem with establishing and implementing policies regarding education for development has been that in many countries the planners have been unable to accurately anticipate social changes. Their best economic projections have often been wrong, and they have failed to predict many other variables that influence all five of the major educational roles.

Radical political shifts in Chile, Ghana and Iran, for example, have resulted in serious "brain drains" of many of their educated citizens. Countries like Greece, Egypt, Turkey and Portugal have exported their surplus manpower through "guest worker" programs. Industrial production for export or in order to replace formerly imported commodities simply hasn't grown at the rates that were forecast for countries like Brazil, Mexico and Nigeria. And the worldwide economic recession coupled with huge increases in the cost of imported fossil fuels has thrown off many ambitious development programs. Simply servicing the foreign debts owed for loans made in the past has become almost impossible for many nations.

There is also often relatively poor articulation between the educational efforts and the nation's manifest needs. We have humanities and social sciences Ph.D.'s driving taxicabs in the United States. Certified electronics technicians may be running tiny "hole in the wall" television repair shops in Turkey. Graduate engineers are selling ready-made suits in the cities of India. Transnational corporations suddenly suspend operations in places where high wages are paid, in order to maximize their profits through Third World sweatshops where the workers receive minimum compensation.

Clearly, better coordination is required to avoid these imbalances that cause so much human tragedy. It may well be that some basic values will have to be changed if social justice is to be achieved. The nature of these problems will subsequently be investigated in greater detail, but it is evident at this point that education for international development is no panacea.

Becoming International Development Educators

One of the motives for writing this book is to provide a practical manual for people who are preparing for careers as international development educators. It is envisioned that there are four main roles related to the field of development that can best be filled by professional educators.

First, elementary, secondary and higher education teachers need to learn about development issues in order to be able to give their students instruction about these vital, global concerns.

For example, high school social studies curricula certainly ought to teach future citizens the information that they will need in order to intelligently take part in framing development policies as citizens and taxpayers. They are going to have to decide which types of community renewal and international aid to support or oppose. Admittedly, few people today have an adequate understanding of these complex issues.

There is a huge amount of literature written by Third World authors that ought to be part of English courses. It is valuable because it helps readers who are living in more affluent circumstances to know what life is like for most people in less developed countries. Similarly, learning about appropriate applications of science and technology in order to assist people to meet their legitimate aspirations for progress ought to be a regular part of science instruction. The study of foreign languages is another realm that naturally provides opportunities for raising the consciousness of the students about development efforts in the nations whose language they are learning. At present, a lot of the cultural content that accompanies foreign language instruction is quite romantic. It concerns the life of privileged minorities, not the realistic experiences of the majority of people in French-speaking, Portuguese-speaking, or Spanish-speaking societies. And, of course, major tongues such as Arabic and Chinese are often not taught at all.

Many of the sub-topics regarding education for international development are relevant to elective courses. For instance, food and nutrition concerns can be examined in home economics programs. Methods of revitalizing rural life can be linked with vocational agriculture. Many students study business law and learn word processing skills. These domains also can be well linked with development strategies and policies. If the students are going to study about urban affairs, they had better learn how planning is being done in inner cities. Communications and the graphic arts similarly can also focus on some basic development topics.

The problem is that little of this kind of learning is going on in schools today. One reason for the dirth of international development studies is simply that few professional educators, themselves, are well informed and knowledgeable about this field. In the second place, then, we need a new breed of qualified international development educators who will work to prepare teachers to instruct this subject. They will need knowledge, skills and pedagogical methodologies in order to integrate development education into their disciplines. They must involve their students

not only in cognitive learning, but also in active efforts to advance development objectives. Only in this way will young people obtain practical, as well as theoretical, knowledge. Also, hands on development work on their part provides for affective learning to complement their cognitive knowledge.

Third, many educational agencies now employ development planners and policy analysts. Specialists in educational development planning, for example, work in the units of most Ministries and Departments of Education. Sometimes they are employed by commercial firms and corporations. In other cases they work for social agencies, cultural organizations, foundations and international instrumentalities. An aim in writing this textbook is to better prepare individuals for careers in these jobs.

Finally, there is a critical need for educators who can work well in cross-cultural situations. Some of these people are employed by international schools or church related institutions overseas. Some volunteer for VISTA or the Peace Corps. Others are hired to teach in the schools or universities of developing countries. The fact, however, is that teachers in cross-cultural situations are unlikely to be very effective unless they are sensitive to international development issues. Then, together with their indigenous colleagues and students, they will be able to design and implement strategies that can make positive impacts.

The goal of exploring education for international development in this book, then, isn't simply to purvey basic information about the field. The author has a much more audacious aim than that. It is nothing less than to prepare school administrators and teachers who will be well informed educational development activists. Only when thousands of educators have given their best thinking and effort to this vital field will we begin to meet humanity's needs on a global scale.

CHAPTER ONE

SUGGESTED READINGS

Anderson, C. Arnold and Mary Jean Bowman, eds. Education and Economic Development. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co., 1965.

Contributions to a conference on "The Role of Education in the Early Stages of Development" comprise this volume. It has sections on investment in human resources, the formation of competencies, diffusing schooling and other learning opportunities, and lists preconditions for successful development as this was perceived in the 1960's.

Carnoy, Martin Education as Cultural Imperialism. New York: Longman, Inc., 1974.

Carnoy investigates the role of schooling in the modern world and concludes that schools serve the interests of the dominant groups in society. This is a good example of revisionist thinking about education for international development.

Castel, Helene, ed. World Development: An Introductory Reader. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1971.

Twelve authors from many parts of the world discuss development theory and practice. Among them are Paulo Freire, Denis Goulet, Ivan Illich, Jesse Jackson, Joseph Okpaku and Juan Luis Segundo - people whose views we will be encountering at other points in this study.

Hambidge, Gove, ed. Dynamics of Development: An International Development Reader. New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1964.

Although it is chiefly of historic interest today, this anthology contains articles about international development as it was conceived of twenty years ago by Eugene R. Black, B.K. Nehru and Henry A. Wallace. Managing economic aid and assistance predominates, but there are also some articles about education's role in development, community development strategies, and the cultural aspects of development.

Hanson, John W. and Cole S. Brembeck, eds. Education and the Development of Nations. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1966.

The interfacing of education and development is the theme of this older anthology. In it various authors discuss

cultural, economic, ethical, scientific and technological issues. The writers include David Apter, Theodore Brameld, R. Freeman Butts, Paul Hoffman, Dean Rusk and Barbara Ward. These were some of the leaders of international development thinking in the post-World War II years.

Harrington, Michael The Vast Majority: A Journey to the World's Poor. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1977.

Written by the author of The Other America, which concerns poverty in the United States, this book describes Harrington's experiences in Africa and the Indian subcontinent. In the chapter on "The Development of Underdevelopment" Harrington contends that underdevelopment is "a world economic structure that perpetuates backwardness." His democratic socialist views are worth investigating.

Horowitz, Irving Louis Three Worlds of Development: The Theory and Practice of International Stratification, Second Edition. New York: Oxford University Press, 1972.

The three worlds model of global socio-economic stratification is described, alternative development approaches and the factors that influence their success discussed, and there is a section on development principles and policies. This is a classic explication of the triadic paradigm as an image of the dynamics of international development.

Singer, Hans W. and Javed A. Ansari Rich and Poor Countries, Third Edition. London: George Allen and Unwin, 1982.

Many perspectives about international inequities and inequalities that require change and melioration are presented, along with a description of the development process and strategies that are used to carry it out. These authors investigate aid, trade and the impact of multinational corporations on poor countries. They conclude with a discussion of the last thirty years of changing ideas about development issues.

CHAPTER ONE

MEDIA FOR LEARNING ABOUT INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION

Among the works of fiction written by Third World authors, a literature of international development education can be found. This can be studied by using the methodology of literary sociology. There are many items available for this type of inquiry, but two will be used to illustrate the approach.

The first is a novel about the region of Liberia inhabited by the Kpelle people. In Red Dust on the Green Leaves: A Kpelle Twins' Childhood. (Thompson, CT: Interculture Associates, 1973), John Gay reconstructs Kpelle life. Although the plot of the book is fiction, Gay has written an ethnographic description of the clash between traditional and modern forms of education in West Africa.

Several passages from the book will illustrate the types of insight that Gay gives us.

> Three years passed before Koli first visited home. Each year his family tried to persuade him to come back, but he had some excuse each time. The children were building a new house on which to learn the white man's knowledge. The white man had jobs for them to earn their school fees. Some of the other children even went to Moravia with the white man. For Koli, his own town seemed so far away, so unimportant, and the new world of the kwii seemed the only reality of his life. He frankly did not want to go back home, did not want to be exposed to all the threats and persuasions of his family.
>
> (p. 193)

> It was three more years before Koli came home. When he arrived in Salala a third-grader, after completing primer, first and second grades, he wasn't sure exactly how old he was, although he thought he was perhaps fifteen years old. At least the white man, after asking him questions about his life in town, made that guess. Not that it really mattered much, but these white people liked to give everyone a number.
>
> Koli arrived at school two weeks late, and the white man was angry. He made Koli do punishment work at school. He made gardens for the Liberian teachers, preparing the

> ground for okra, beans and eggplant, and he planted flowers all around the white man's house. It did not seem right for Koli to have to work again when he reached school, since the reason for his being late was that he was helping his parents. But he accepted the discipline and the work, and he did what was required.
>
> (p. 207)

Another excellent example of the literature about education for international development located in works of fiction is The Schoolmaster by Earl Lovelace (London: Heinemann, 1968. Caribbean Writers Series, 1979.) Written by a native of Trinidad who grew up in Tobago and Port of Spain, the book is set in Kumaca, a remote Trinidadian village. This tiny community has not yet been affected by the rapid modernization that has been sweeping the urban sector of the same society. Then, there is talk about the need for a local school, which is constructed. A teacher is sent out to Kumaca and soon the youth of the village are acquiring new skills. At the same time, however, the villagers discover that progress alters cherished customs and may undermine a people's moral fiber.

At one point in the novel, Paulaine, who has been an advocate of modern schooling says:

> Manuel-boy, I do not know why you do not like school. And it is for all-you I do this. It is for the children of Kumaca this idea work in my head. And we build the school. We do it. It was not easy for the priest either. Because he has an idea we do not need the school. Everytime I go to see him he is fighting with himself. But if something is to happen, by God, how can a man even if he is a priest stop it? I know we need this school. I know that a man must live in his times. And I feel happy that we got the priest to agree, and we have with our own hands built the school. But it can benefit only if you use it. Yet there are some of you who say you do not like the school. I do not understand.
>
> Manuel-boy, look at Kumaca. It is only high woods and cocoa trees now, and not much different from when I was a boy. And Valencia was the same thing. And the track to Valencia was even better when I was young. And Zanilla was not bright, and did not have lights and the tall buildings

> you see now, even the road did not have pitch on them. A man did not have to know to read then. You take up your cutlass and you go out to the estate. But now a man must know things. If you want to go to Zanilla or Arima, or if you want to go to Port-of-Spain, you cannot go like a fool now. The world is not the same place it used to be, and a man must keep up with the world. I could read and write a little. The people who can read and write will say that you not bound to learn these things, but they already know how to do them.
>
> (pp. 37-8)

There are many other works of fiction that interpret learning and schooling amid socio-economic development. For descriptions of some of them see:

Frank A. Stone, Educational Perspectives in Modern West Indian Novels. Storrs, CT: The I.N. Thut World Education Center, 1984.

Frank A. Stone, Sociology in Modern Middle Eastern Fiction: An Approach to Studying the Area. Storrs, CT: The I.N. Thut World Education Center, 1980.

Films

Instructional media in the form of films are another valuable source of insights and information about education for international development. Here are two recommended items.

An Essay on Poverty. 16 mm., 24 minutes, color, 1977. World Bank (IBRD), 1818 H. Street, N.W., Washington, D.C., 20433. Sound is in English only.

Of the three billion people who now inhabit the developing countries, one billion live under conditions that degrade the very meaning of humanity. In the next twenty-five years another two billion human beings will be added to this Third World population. What is their future?

The enormous problems caused by poverty in today's world, for both developed and developing countries, are explored in this film. Some provocative questions are raised and crucial issues of development are analyzed. Rural development, migration to urban areas,

women's roles in developing societies, and the maldistribution of incomes and opportunity are all discussed in terms of how they impact on the central aim of development - meeting the basic needs of people who are very poor.

The key issue that is raised concerns the duties and responsibilities of leaders and planners in both rich and poor nations. The concept that emerges is that the challenge of poverty can no longer be ignored.

Development without Tears? 16 mm., 28 minutes, color, 1979. Vision Habitat. United Nations Audio-Visual Information Centre on Human Settlements, 2206 East Mall, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, B.C. V6T 1W5 Canada. Sound tracks are available in Arabic, English, French and Spanish.

Real economic development in poor countries involves the creation of wealth and more evenly distributing it throughout the society. In many Third World countries economic improvement has completely eluded the poorest people, those who live in rural areas. While they have long been scattered over a large area and have been almost powerless in the past, these villagers are now a force that governments dare not ignore.

Several different countries that have widely different social systems are portrayed in this film. The efforts that their governments are making to meet the needs of their own rural people are shown. Some nations such as Cuba and the Peoples' Republic of China have rejected western models of development and chosen revolutionary alternatives as their way of solving their particular problems. Others like Jamaica and India are experimenting with a variety of economic and political strategies.

Interviews with development experts from Africa, Asia and Latin America are included in this film. These informants stress the importance of political action in overcoming the enormous obstacles to material progress that exist in developing countries.

" . . . The interests of the developing countries and developed countries can no longer be isolated from each other. The prosperity of the international community as a whole depends upon the prosperity of its constituent parts."

Report of the Secretary-General of the United Nations to the Tenth Special Session of the General Assembly, June, 1978

CHAPTER TWO

EDUCATION FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT: A SPECTRUM OF PERSPECTIVES

Development action reflects theories about how education can best contribute to human growth and socio-economic progress. In order to intelligently plan and undertake projects of educational development, it is necessary to be aware of the varieties of thought on this topic. In this chapter, therefore, we will provide an overview of eight influential contemporary theories about how education ought to function in general development programs.

Jagdish Bhagwati

As far back as 1966 Jagdish Bhagwati, a Professor of Economics at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, who came from India and had formerly taught at Delhi University, was arguing that too much stress had been placed on the inability of underdeveloped countries to accumulate capital. In The Economics of Underdeveloped Countries, Bhagwati explained that it was now fashionable to expound the "new" orthodoxy that underdevelopment can be explained essentially in terms of the limitations imposed on a society by its inadequate human resources. What were those human resources that so many Third World countries were desperately seeking to obtain in the 1950's and 1960's? Bhagwati begins his discussion of them, saying,

> Several attributes of human populations can be distinguished. The qualities most relevant to the problems of underdevelopment are considered most conveniently under four main heads: (1) entrepreneurial ability; (2) skilled manpower; (3) the state of administration; and (4) national character.[1]

According to Bhagwati, entrepreneurship entails the capacity and willingness to undertake intelligent risks and innovate in economic activities. Efficiency, productivity and profitability are the other aspects of entrepreneurship. Bhagwati believes that this whole gallaxy of behaviors can be taught, but they are not, in themselves, enough. They must be accompanied by increased numbers of people who possess operative skills - in other words

CHART FIVE

SOURCES OF THE DEVELOPMENT THEORIES ANALYZED

Bauer, P.T. Dissent on Development, Revised Edition. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1971, 1976.

Bhagwati, Jagdish The Economics of Underdeveloped Countries. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, World University Library, 1966.

Goulet, Denis The Cruel Choice: A New Concept in the Theory of Development. New York: Atheneum, 1973.

Gran, Guy Development by People: Citizen Construction of a Just World. New York: Praeger Publishers, 1983.

Harbison, Frederick H. Human Resources as the Wealth of Nations. New York: Oxford University Press, 1973.

Hettne, Björn Development Theory and the Third World. Stockholm: Swedish Agency for Research Cooperation with Developing Countries (SAREC Report R-2), 1982.

Myrdal, Gunnar The Challenge of World Poverty: A World Anti-Poverty Program in Outline. New York: Vintage Books, 1970.

Simmons, John, ed. The Educational Dilemma: Policy Issues for Developing Countries in the 1980's. Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1980.

technological competencies - as well as managerial ones, which can be defined as the capacity to organize and effectively operate producing units. Improvement in all of these strata of human development may be frustrated, according to Bhagwati, if inadequate, inefficient and halting civil administrations persist. Bad administration often leads to corruption, which in turn slows down work and corrodes the people's moral fibre. It breeds cynicism, blocking enthusiasm and idealism which are vital to healthy development. More intangible, but equally important, he claims, is the national character. By this he means the basic attributes of a society, such as the people's industriousness, receptivity to new ideas, and level of literacy.

Bhagwati's point is that all four dimensions of human resources development can be influenced by education. Especially it is the mission of higher education to prepare effective entrepreneurs for all social sectors. At the same time, the universities must turn out skilled managers and business people. Also, tertiary education must teach the competencies required for a strong and efficient civil service. To a great extent, as cultural and scientific centers, the universities in a country also will always have an impact on the national culture.

P.T. Bauer

Another, different type of perspective comes from the United Kingdom. It was presented in a book entitled Dissent on Development by P.T. Bauer, Professor of Economics at the London School of Economics. By many development specialists, Bauer is regarded as a "thorn in the flesh" because he vigorously attacks many of their most cherished notions. He gives primarily an economic exposition of the development process, rejecting the theories of "the vicious circle of poverty" from which poor people cannot escape, and "the widening gap" between the developed and developing worlds.

Unfortunately, it is not possible to even summarize all of Bauer's arguments here. When he discusses how to assess the effects of aid on material progress, however, he touches upon educational attributes.

> . . . the prime determinants of material progress are people's economic aptitudes, their social institutions and political arrangements, and to a much lesser extent natural resources and external market opportunities.[2]

Bauer recognizes that external aid cannot affect these five underlying determinants of development favorably to any great extent. He argues, "If a country, or rather a people, cannot readily develop without external gifts, it is unlikely to develop with them."

He goes on to assert that,

> An important instance of the adoption of inappropriate external models is that of the establishment and proliferation of universities based on western models when there are no employment opportunities for their graduates. This consideration applies especially to vocational training, the usefulness of which is closely related to the occupational pattern and salary structure of the society.[3]

Twenty-one significant attitudes, beliefs and modes of conduct that he believes are unfavorable to material progress have been catalogued by Bauer.

1. Lack of interest in material advance.
2. Resignation in the face of poverty.
3. Lack of initiative.
4. Lack of self-reliance.
5. Lack of a sense of personal responsibility.
6. A high preference for leisure.
7. Lassitude.
8. High prestige given to the passive or contemplative life.
9. Prestige accorded to mysticism.
10. Prestige for renunciation of the world compared to acquisition and achievement.
11. The idea of a preordained, unchanging and unchangeable universe.
12. Emphasis on performing duties and accepting obligations, rather than on asserting personal rights and achieving results.
13. Lack of sustained curiosity or experimentation.
14. Belief in the efficacy of supernatural and occult forces.
15. Insistence on the unity of the organic universe.

16. The need to live with nature rather than to conquer it or harness it to man's needs.
17. Reluctance to take animal life.
18. Belief in perpetual reincarnation.
19. A recognized status of beggary.
20. A lack of stigma to accepting charity.
21. Opposition to women's work outside of the household.[4]

Admittedly, this compendium bears all the signs of being a European's critique of Third World values. Bauer's thesis is certainly debatable at this point, but the fact remains that it is especially with these notions that modern liberal arts and scientific education contends. It is no wonder that what is taught in the schools often clashes with what has been inculcated at home. If the predominant attitudes about these twenty-one values clash with the views that encourage development, we can expect that this will inhibit social progress.

One very arresting aspect of Bauer's overall argument is his vigorous opposition to comprehensive development planning. He claims that the idea that an all-encompassing format and national goals are indispensible for material advance is unfounded. Central planning does not promote the needed changes in individual attitudes and mores. It reinforces the authoritarian tradition that controls many societies. It means tight economic controls. It inhibits establishing new enterprises - especially if they are in sectors not favored by the planners. It even undermines international relations, such as ease of migration, free trade, and the uninhibited flows of capital and technology.

When centralized planning is introduced, the transfer of skills, generating new ideas, and introducing innovative production methods also become the specialized domains of the planners. This greatly enhances their power. But, according to Bauer, comprehensive development planning has not raised the general living standards anywhere.

Then what is its appeal?

> . . . for intellectuals at least planning seems to imply conscious, rational and scientific control of economic life, in contrast to the supposedly irrational, blind and haphazard methods prevailing in

> its absence. Moreover, such a policy will lead to the creation of positions of power both for politicians and for intellectuals to which they could not aspire in a less centralized society. Another factor . . . is that - at least in the initial stages of planning - major elements of the policy often benefit business enterprise by shielding them from competition or even by creating windfall profits . . .[5]

Many professional educators are ambivalent about comprehensive, centralized development planning. On the one hand, it is specialists from the Ministry of Education or a university who are likely to become prominent development planners. They can thus achieve a measure of power to augment their traditional authority and prestige. On the other, most Third World educators have little opportunity to participate in educational policy formation and comprehensive development planning is likely to reduce what little collaboration has ever existed. In other words, the choice is between having a larger national impact for a few high level educators, or opting for more local and regional influence for most people in the profession. Bauer plainly favors the latter option. The problem is that in the real world, centralized educational bureaucracies predominate. Attempts to devolve or diffuse development planning will probably not change the well established procedures by which all decisions are made in the capital and implemented throughout the society. Changing this established pattern is no easy matter.

Gunnar Myrdal

Probably the most famous book about international development issues is The Challenge of World Poverty by the Swedish social scientist, Gunnar Myrdal. In contrast with many works in which the relationship of educational processes to development is dealt with only indirectly or minimally, no less than seventy-five references to education are listed in the index to Myrdal's book. Here is a writer on development strategies who recognizes the key role of education.

Myrdal argues that the economic and technological advances in the developed nations are having a deleterious effect on the Third and Fourth Worlds. This situation can be corrected, he believes, only by articulating ideals and then instituting the radical reforms that are required in order to attain them. As a democratic socialist, Myrdal strongly advocates comprehensive development planning in order to produce the fundamental changes.

When discussing the role of education in development, Myrdal points out that the colonial past in many societies was geared toward forming a tiny educated elite while neglecting popular education.

> . . . the colonial governments helped to preserve and make more insuperable the barrier between an entrenched upper class and the masses of the people. And it was the hereditary aristocracy and the upper class strata generally who sent their children to the secondary schools and the colleges.
>
> . . .
>
> One further observation should be added. The entire school system was in colonial times dominated by the colleges, giving a general, non-professional tertiary education required for entering public service. This was one aspect of the disinterest in popular education.
>
> Importance was placed on passing examinations and acquiring status, while practical training for life and work was ignored. This spirit dominated, above all, the teaching and learning in tertiary institutions.[6]

Myrdal then proceeds to point out the dangers of producing too many highly credentialed generalists while the society lacks individuals who are proficient at specialized skills. He brings to mind the floods of philosophy and literature majors in India, and Turkey's bumper crop of lawyers produced in the last fifty years.

Another problem that Myrdal recognized is that:

> . . . without a fundamental change of attitudes on the part of the "educated," a large-scale adult education campaign in the underdeveloped countries is not possible. The universities themselves should be engaged in the effort.[7]

In other words, this commentator is recommending that the former monopoly of access to higher education by privileged elites cease.

Bringing this about requires not only diffusing opportunities for university study. It also means redefining the mission of a nation's universities, so that they will function as centers of continuing and extended learning for the local people. In addition to erudite instruction and sophisticated research, Myrdal envisions universities as service agencies that reach out to enlighten the society around them. This has happened in a few countries, but in most of the world tertiary institutions are still very distant from the common people and their most basic needs.

Denis Goulet

Denis Goulet published a book on the theory of development called The Cruel Choice in 1971. Since then, his arguments have received considerable attention because they contradict the views of the establishment "trickle down" economists. A Brazilian political scientist who has had considerable cross-cultural experience, Goulet is a Fellow at the Center for the Study of Development and Social Change in Cambridge, Massachusetts.

He asserts that there are currently three main views of development. For many economists, development is basically still national economic growth measured in aggregate terms. People of this persuasion talk about growth in the GNP (gross national product). Although often repudiated today, this type of thinking informed Walt Rostow in his now famous The Stages of Economic Growth.[8] The second predominant outlook today is related to the Development Decades sponsored by the United Nations. Here the concept of development was equated with social change as well as with economic growth. The problem has turned out to be identifying the kinds of social change and economic growth that are desirable, so that these can be nurtured, while avoiding those aspects that are harmful. For example, a nation industrializes, putting thousands of small handcrafters out of work and causing major pollution problems. Its income may rise, but the losses in other areas are great.

In the early 1970's a third conception of development known as "liberation" emerged. It is primarily an ethical approach that stresses the process of consciousness raising and what the Brazilian educator, Paulo Freire, terms "cultural action for freedom."[9] Advocates of development for liberation are not only in Latin America, although the perspective is especially associated with this region. Similar assertions are being made by many African and Asian spokespeople; as well as by individuals from the black, Hispanic and native American minorities in the United States.

Goulet articulates the liberation view of development in The Cruel Choice. He attacks the complacency and inertia of his comfortable readers, claiming that while the world's weak are certainly vulnerable, so are the powerful. The gap that he and other advocates of liberation stress is between the promises made by the development planners of this world, and the performance of the vast majority of their programs. In order to attract support the development specialists say that their projects will result in all kinds of improvements. Sadly, the actual outcomes of their work seldom match their earlier visions. Like political campaign oratory, the glowing goals of the national development schemes fade from the scene having made little difference to the majority of the populace.

Contrasting with this sad state of affairs, Goulet advocates authentic development. This requires broad popular decision making, a diffusion of the responsibility for getting results, and an ongoing dialogue among the developers and their constituencies. Goulet realizes that technology transfers are political acts for both the donors and the recipients. It is not only among nations that this is true, but also within a society. For example, the efficient way that a function is performed in one part of a country may be strange and unknown elsewhere in the same land. I, myself, have witnessed the consternation of a village family trying to use an escalator for the first time. Imagine what you have to learn in order to use a complicated bus system in the city, if you come from the rural sector where donkeys and bullock wagons are the means of transportation.

Authentic development implies new functions for schools and non-formal types of education. If valid development is to take place, Goulet recognizes that the issues of alternative approaches have to be much more widely understood and discussed than is now the case. A nation's professional and vocational specialists would have to carefully examine the various development priorities. People in towns and villages would have to express their own aspirations and needs. And the education system could monitor the total impact of the development efforts in order to assess whether or not they are being effective. The chief criterion of effectiveness would be reaching the poorest and most disadvantaged, and making a noticeable improvement in their lives. According to Goulet, no other standard of performance is sufficient. There is no alternative measure of accountability that is ethical.

Frederick H. Harbison

Human Resources as the Wealth of Nations was written by Frederick H. Harbison, the Roger Williams Straus Professor of Human Relations, Economics and International Affairs at Princeton University in 1973. It is the most thorough statement in print of the human resources development perspective. According to Harbison,

> human resources are the energies, skills, talent and knowledge of people which are, or which potentially can or should be, applied to the production of goods or the rendering of useful services.[10]

He asserts that less developed societies are characterized by the general lack of formation of their human resources potential. Much of their populations will be illiterate, there will be critical shortages of strategic skills, and the human mastery of the natural environment is very limited. As a result, general productivity and even cultural creativity are relatively low.

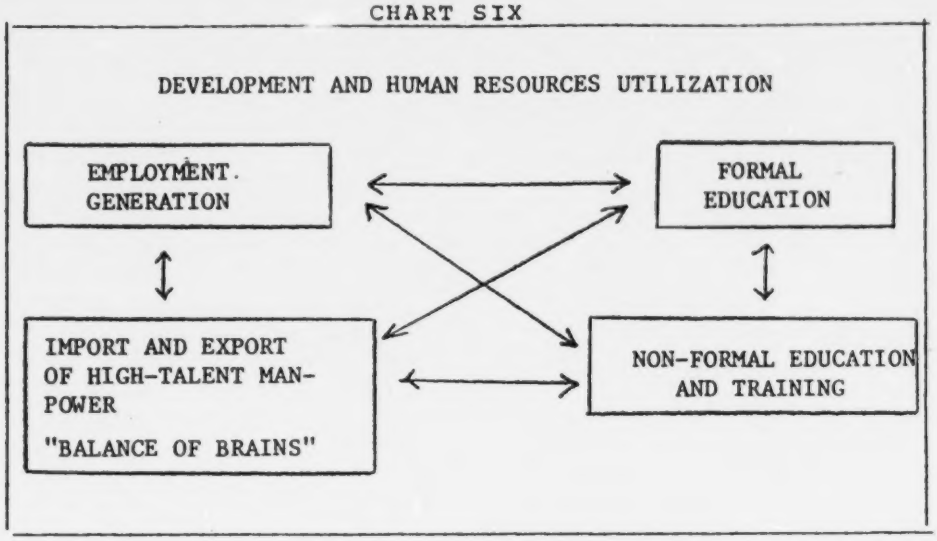
The remedy that Harbison suggests for these problems is educational. Human skills, knowledge and work capacity can be increased, he argues, by formal schooling from the primary through the tertiary levels. There can also be better non-formal learning opportunities provided by on-the-job instruction in working environments. Independent study, observing other people who have skills, and learning networks can also be encouraged. A nation can press into educational service its media, such as the newspapers, radio and television.

Another means of "human capital formation" is offering ways to legitimate one's fund of personal experience, so that it can be evaluated and properly recognized, applied and utilized. A society, for example, will contain individuals who have acquired functional technical skills by unconventional means. Unless these are identified and receive recognition, they may not be drawn on optimally. In Harbison's view, there is no upper limit to progress when it is conceived of as human resources development. Human creativity and intelligence are potentially boundless. No society ever actually utilizes its human resources optimally so that nobody is unemployed, underemployed or mal-employed.

> Even in the most advanced countries, some persons will always be in occupations which under utilize their education, training, or capacity for growth.[11]

The general model of the whole development process used by Harbison contains four interacting systems.

CHART SIX



It is these four vital factors that he believes must be carefully monitored in each society. If they are properly harmonized, maladjustments and critical shortages of personnel can be avoided.

John Simmons

John Simmons of the World Bank has edited and contributed to an important book called The Education Dilemma: Policy Issues for Developing Countries in the 1980's. Simmons' chapter, "An Overview of the Policy Issues in the 1980's" succinctly identifies a number of educational concerns.

In the first place, he points out that we must realize that in most nations education has been the only sector that has met and exceeded its planned investment targets. This deployment of funds has been in response to pressing manpower needs, parental pressures, and the growing conviction that educational opportunities are a basic human right. As a result, educators cannot claim not to have received financial support. But the expansion of the formal education system is relatively low cost in comparison with the expense of creating new job slots. So the new schools turn

out graduates who have ever rising aspirations and employment expectations. When the economy is rather static, they confront a dirth of satisfactory job opportunities in their homelands.

Since the 1970's when the present worldwide recession began, most nations have been facing a crisis in their educational funding. Educational costs have escalated, while at the same time slowing down the rate of school construction or the expansion of non-formal programs of learning for adults creates serious political problems everywhere. The formerly rosy views about what education would contribute to national, regional and local development have evaporated.

> Policymakers in countries that are considering increased efforts to reduce poverty through employment, income redistribution, and welfare measures are asking: What <u>is</u> the contribution of education to individual and social welfare? Should resources now used for formal education be shifted to other programs where they may have a higher marginal social product? Can allocations within the sector be made more efficient, effective, and equitable? [13]

According to Simmons, educational policy issues in the 1980's are going to entail reassessing the aims and objectives of this sector. For example, more thorough identifications of the managerial and professional skills that will be needed in both public and private enterprises must be made. We also need to more precisely articulate our cultural objectives, such as shaping the uses of the national language and deepening the citizens' understanding of their national history. Simultaneously, new explorations must be undertaken about how children, young people and adults learn. What forms of instruction actually will best meet their needs? Certainly in the 1980's educational institutions are going to have to be more efficient and cost effective than they have been in the past. They will have to use more non-formal and mediated programs of learning than ever before.

Also in the 1980's fundamental educational theories will have to be reconsidered. It is no longer sufficient to suppose that all education is good and more education is better. The incrementalist or "human capital" theory, such as that advanced by Harbison, for example, claims that education increases productivity by diffusing knowledge and skills. It is basically

an input/output model that uses cognitive learning as measured by grades, achievement tests and cumulative averages as its standards of effectiveness. The rationale is that increased amounts of schooling will raise the person's earning capacity and make them more productive. Also, equity in access to schooling will reduce social injustice. This is the thesis that is now being called into question in many societies.

The problem with it is that many key skills are not cognitive in nature. Also, complex factors operate in the realm of career opportunities and upward mobility. The excellence of one's schooling, as measured by standardized tests, is only one variable. Even the best teaching and the most efficient programs of learning will not succeed in the face of social and economic stagnation.

The structuralist theory, on the other hand, argues that institutions of education function in the total social system. They tend to maintain the status quo, according to this point of view, because they induct students into the nation's cultural heritage and reproduce a stratified social order by their processes of selection and credentials awarding. Thus, the structuralists claim, the way schools function internally and within the larger society is a reflection of its dominant economic and political systems. In other words, they believe that educational policies and programs are being determined by factors outside of the educational domain.

Simmons goes on to debate what magnitude of investment ought to be made in education. He discusses how costs and benefits in this sector should be related. These management concerns bring with them questions about educational wastage, accountability for the quality of the learning, and the efficiency of the school systems.

Guy Gran

Another source of suggestive ideas about the role of education in development is a book by Guy Gran titled Development by People: Citizen Construction of a Just World. Gran, who is an independent development consultant located in Washington, D.C. argues that,

> The principal problems of human development are large concentrations of power (governments and corporations), the ideologies or economic doctrines they proclaim, and the processes of exclusion they practice. Any solution for mass development must overcome all three.[14]

Gran is very critical of the international aid establishment, with its bureaucratic program and project procedures. He gives many examples of cases in which the stated goals and the actual results of development efforts were very different. Although Gran seldom identifies education explicitly, he does describe many educational processes which he believes ought to take place.

For example, he advocates diffusing a greater awareness of alternative development options among the citizens of a society. He believes that a widespread consideration and debate of the issues can produce basic consensus about the hierarchy of needs in a society. Then, it is possible to devise a curriculum of conscientization leading to the formation of "grass roots" small group organizations. This type of local and diffused development strategy requires the preparation of a new type of community leaders who are equipped to function as development catalysts. Eventually, of course, Gran recognizes that there will also have to be some intermediate organizations that can work to effectively coordinate local, provincial and national efforts. But these should not come from the top down. Instead they ought to emerge as voluntary associations capable of cooperating with government agencies, business and industry.

Worthwhile development within the kind of participatory society that Gran envisions would require many more specialists who understand group dynamics and cross-cultural communication. They would also have to be competent at evolving democratic leadership and teaching local citizens how to do development planning on the micro-level. Where are these people going to come from, if not from educational institutions in which the present types of preparation have been changed in light of these needs? Also, local schools through extension programs and continuing education can become community development centers. Thus, Gran envisions a whole new field of activities for the schools in developing societies.

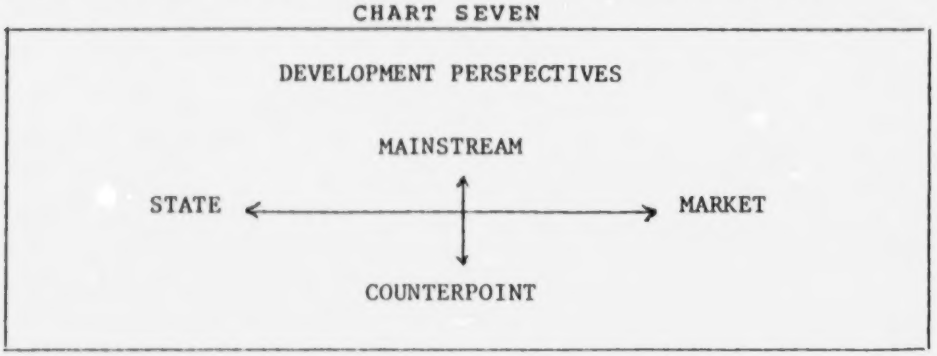
Björn Hettne

Development Theory and the Third World by Björn Hettne, a Swedish planner, argues that there can be no fixed and final definition of development. Hettne contends that development must always function in particular contexts and specialized situations. As Paul Street has expressed it, " . . . there is a solution to every problem, but also a problem to every solution." There simply are no development panaceas. Minimally, however, authentic development always involves structural transformation. This implies cultural, economic, political and social changes that must be integrated into the framework of society. Therefore, by definition, development is interdisciplinary.

In light of this basic fact, the traditional pattern of separate disciplines and subjects in a nation's school system is inimical to optimum development. This way of segmenting knowledge fragments learning. The products of this kind of schooling tend to be narrow individuals who are poorly prepared to plan for bold, inclusive initiatives. Like the blind men in India who were trying to define what an elephant is by touching one of the animals, they will recognize only sub-sections of the whole. One blind man grabbed the tail and announced that an elephant is like a rope. Another touched a tusk and claimed that an elephant is like a sword. A third found one of the elephant's feet and decided that an elephant is like the trunk of a tree. Similarly, over-specialization results in partial development planning, while more inclusive learning in light of the indigenous culture can form the grounds for integral programs.

Hettne also contends that today we must transcend the former Eurocentric phase of development thinking. What is needed is a new, comprehensive ideology. It must encompass the four dimensions that are manifest in contemporary development strategies.[15]

CHART SEVEN



It is Hettne's belief that modernization theory became outdated in the academic world during the 1970's. Similarly, dependency theory, with its characteristic notions of the rich metropolitan center and the exploited periphery - derived from neo-Marxist and liberation thought - is today being widely called into question. Usually both these older ways of thinking about development and underdevelopment have now been displaced by paradigms analyzing worldwide accumulation patterns. These assess the quality of living provided by various life styles, rather than still dwelling on the previous motifs of cultural and economic imperialism.

The new way of looking at things produces a recognition of global interdependence. We begin to see that we are living in a planetary order where the old national boundaries are rapidly becoming outdated. The political-economic expression of this perspective has been the drive for a New International Economic Order (NIEO). By this is meant a more equitable distribution of resources and wealth among the peoples of the northern and southern hemispheres.

If at this point we again consider the problem of how to generate more adequate human resources, worldwide, the role of educational systems changes. When we think about cultural, economic, political and social development in transnational terms within a global system, we get new priorities. Ordinary people everywhere must learn to be able to define basic human needs, not only in their own society, but everywhere. They must acquire expressive skills so that they can communicate. There will have to be some commonly known tongue for world dialogue. All human beings will have to be taught basic health, nutrition, housing and sanitation skills. They need to know how to contribute productively to their community and society. Then, they will be ready to help to plan the interventions and engage in working toward alleviating dehumanizing conditions everywhere.

Paradoxically, on the one hand this agenda requires us to be mature enough to move away from the old Eurocentric ideas toward the indigenization of development thinking. On the other hand, Hettne points out that it also requires us to form much more extensive linkages than exist at present with individuals, organizations and institutions outside of our own circles and beyond our national boundaries.

Here, again, educational institutions can make a major contribution. International exchange programs, for example, could become the rule rather than the exception. Local schools could be yoked with similar institutions in other parts of the world. Teachers could commit a portion of their time to community improvement efforts. Students could participate in work camps and other worthwhile social service projects at home and abroad. Informal learning networks could be formed, and more individuals with specialized skills and knowledges could share them with others as mentors.

Through our programs of instruction, we can help people in our constituencies to realize the shifts that have taken place regarding development. As professional educators we can assist our citizenry to move on from the old notions of purely economic determinism, modernization as the sole objective, ideas of inevitable dependency, and western biases. Rather than getting involved in rehashing these disfunctional concepts, maybe we can all move on to inclusive approaches to development. These will have to be locally planned and initiated, but global in their conception and scope. As the slogan puts it:

Think globally - Act locally

CHAPTER TWO

NOTES

1 Jagdish Bhagwati *The Economics of Underdeveloped Countries*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1966, p. 79. See also Chapter 19, "Education and Manpower Planning," pp. 179-87 and Chapter 24, "Sharing the Know-How," pp. 225-30. Another more recent general exposition is: Hans W. Singer and Javed A. Ansari *Rich and Poor Countries*, Third Edition. London: George Allen and Unwin, 1982.

2 P.T. Bauer *Dissent on Development*, Revised Edition. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1971, 1976, p. 100.

3 *Ibid.*, p. 103.

4 *Ibid.*, p. 78.

5 *Ibid.*, p. 92. Bauer defines power as "the capacity to restrict the choices open to other people." (Note 2, p. 72)

6 Gunnar Myrdal *The Challenge of World Poverty*: A World Anti-Poverty Program in Outline. New York: Vintage Books, 1970, pp. 172-3.

7 *Ibid.*, p. 181.

8 W.W. Rostow *The Stages of Economic Growth*, Second Edition. London: Cambridge University Press, 1960, 1971.

9 Paulo Freire *Cultural Action for Freedom*. Harmondsworth, Middlesex, England, U.K.: Penguin Books, 1972, 1974, 1975. This essay was first published in the *Harvard Educational Review* in 1970.

CHAPTER TWO

SUGGESTED READINGS

Bernstein, Henry, ed. Underdevelopment and Development: The Third World Today. Harmondsworth, Middlesex, England, U.K.: Penguin Books, Ltd., 1973.

This anthology contains twenty-one essays organized into six sections. After three articles about underdevelopment in historical perspective, there are contributions on topics such as agriculture, industrialization and development strategies. Ivan Illich concludes the book with an essay entitled, "Outwitting the 'Developed' Countries."

Elliott, Charles Patterns of Poverty in the Third World. A Study of Social and Economic Stratification. New York: Praeger Publishers, 1975.

Assisted by Francoise de Morsier, Elliott was commissioned to undertake this inquiry by the World Council of Churches. The concepts of enrichment and impoverishment are explored, and then the book is organized into a tripart format emphasizing rural differentiation and exclusion, the experiences of privileged people, and urban outcasts. There is a chapter on reinforcement and exclusion in education.

Fägerlind, Ingemar and Lawrence J. Saha Education and National Development: A Comparative Perspective. Oxford, England, U.K.: Pergamon Press, 1983.

A Swede and an Australian have collaborated to investigate the theory, policy and practice of education and development. The origins of modern development thought are traced, and concepts such as modernization, political mobilization, and educational reform are explored. Capitalist and Socialist development approaches are analyzed.

Gamer, Robert E. The Developing Nations: A Comparative Perspective. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1976.

Gamer is an international political scientist who begins his book by examining local government under a number of the great empires of history: the Incas, the Nupes, the Kachins and the Hindus. He then considers the forces that disrupted these ways of life, and explores patron-client relationships in today's political systems. Modernization

theories and national reform movements are discussed, and Gamer recommends redevelopment as a way out of our present dilemmas.

Jegen, Mary Evelyn and Charles K. Wilber Growth with Equity: Strategies for Meeting Human Needs. New York: Paulist Press, 1979.

This is an edited volume of essays by writers from five perspectives: theological, basic human needs, agricultural development, employment and the new international order. Issues such as measuring needs and evaluating the impact of interventions, as well as a discussion of the role of the transnational corporations are included.

Kohr, Leopold The Overdeveloped Nations: The Diseconomies of Scale. New York: Schocken Books, 1978.

Kohr reminds his readers that largeness and affluence are not necessarily advantageous. He discusses theories of critical size and optimum size, showing how the size of a society affects its living standards, budget and expansion. This book makes it clear that often social change agents are minorities.

Lehmann, David, ed. Development Theory: Four Critical Studies. London: Frank Cass, 1979.

This collection of articles is introduced with an essay by the compiler. Dudley Seers then discusses the meaning of development, E. Wayne Nafziger critiques American development economics, Donald Cruise O'Brien discusses modernization and order, and Henry Bernstein contrasts the sociology of development and underdevelopment.

Rostow, W.W. The Stages of Economic Growth: A Non-Communist Manifesto, Second Edition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1971.

Rostow popularized the five stages of growth cycle and it is from him that terms such as "the take-off," "the drive to maturity" and "the age of high mass-consumption" come. Many development specialists disagree with Rostow, but it is wise to know what he argued, first-hand.

CHAPTER TWO

MEDIA FOR LEARNING ABOUT INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION

Films

African Girl: Malobi. Color, 11 min., 1960.

This film presents the environment in which Malobi, a young girl of the Ibo group in Nigeria, is growing up. Her people construct traditional homes, raise yams and fruit, and her grandfather is a skilled carver of furniture and trays. Malobi is attending school, and we see how formal education may affect her life.

Child of the Philippines - No Time to Play. Color, 13 min., 1979.

We see a typical day in the life of eleven year old Cynthia Cena who lives in a back country village of the Philippine Republic. She carries the water and does other heavy jobs at home, and also attends the local school. Cynthia would like to become a teacher, but her family's poverty makes attaining this goal unlikely. Development projects such as nutrition education and learning better farming methods are gradually improving the Cena family's lot in life.

Child of Urban Thailand - A Place to Live. Color, 13 min., 1979.

Wanchai lives in a shack in the slums of Bangkok with his family which consists of eleven people. They illustrate the problems of migrants who have left the rural areas of the Third World for the cities without adequate job skills or money. One of Wanchai's sisters is working as a waitress, and she supports the family. Wanchai has been sponsored to attend a school, but after classes he has to return to the squalor of his neighborhood.

Hindu Village Boy. Color, 11 min., 1970.

Set in northern India, the film contrasts modern industrial development with antiquated agricultural techniques. India's traditional caste system is being desegregated and we see the changes this will bring in employment opportunities. We follow the daily routine of a boy living in this society as he helps his father in the fields and goes to school.

Oral History

In the community or at the institution of higher learning where you are studying the theory and practice of education for international development there are probably some people who come from less developed parts of the United States or Third and Fourth World countries. Ask some of these individuals if they would be willing to be informants for your group. Organize a panel where they can give their opinions about the optimum role of educational processes in development programs and projects.

If you choose to use a semi-structured interview format, here are some questions you may wish to ask:

1. From what part of the United States or other nation do you come?
2. What was your original home community there?
3. In what part of the region or country is it located?
4. Can you describe your "hometown"?
5. How old were you when you moved to New England or came to the United States?
6. Why did you migrate or immigrate?
7. Did you attend school in your native place?
8. If so, can you name and describe the institution(s) that you attended there?
9. In what grade and type of study program were you when you left to come here?
10. Do you plan to go back to your original home?
11. If so, what do you anticipate will be your career there?
12. How were the academic standards in the schools of your home community, in your opinion?
13. What types of vocational training for productive employment were offered there?

14. What were your opportunities to learn fine arts such as art, drama, dance, literature and music there?

15. Describe the disciplinary system that you experienced in schools in your home community.

16. What provisions were made for exceptional children with special learning needs?

17. How equitable were your educational opportunities in your home community?

18. What were the ways that formal schooling contributed to legitimate development objectives in your home society, in your opinion?

19. What types of adult, non-formal or alternative learning were functioning in your home community?

20. How would like to see education change in order to better meet individual and social needs?

Note: These questions have been adapted from an interview format devised for a project conducted by Lenford and Yvonne Baker-Lawes on "Caribbean/Connecticut Cross-Cultural Educational Experiences" in the Greater Hartford Area in 1983-1984.

"If education was viewed as a process for self-discovery which would give freedom to individuals to experience and explore according to their own potentialities, and to define fulfilment in their own terms, they would be totally involved with life itself, and grow fully to contribute their best to society as well as to their own happiness."

Dr. Maduri Shah, President
The World Education Fellowship
Education for Self-Discovery,
London: Hodder and Stoughton,
1987.

Chapter Three

TEACHING ABOUT GLOBAL DEVELOPMENT ISSUES

Wherever we may work as teachers, we are going to feel a commitment, as international development educators, to involve our students in learning more about the critical issues related to development affairs. In some cases, these learners will also be the constituency with whom a development program or project is undertaken. Then, one of the purposes of the instruction will be to assist with broadening their comprehension of the problems, so that they can recognize linkages and relationships that affect their present condition. More frequently, however, the students will come from more affluent areas and need to find out how the majority of humankind lives. The purpose of instructing these children, young people or adults about global development issues is to enhance their awareness and expand their knowledge. Also, as development work usually depends either on public policy or private philanthropy, these citizens and taxpayers will benefit from examining these fields in order to be better able to make wise decisions and plan their own role in this increasingly important realm.

Fortunately, many helpful curricula have been devised for teaching about development concerns. Five main topics are related to this general theme: (1) population, (2) food and hunger, (3) human rights and social justice, (4) conflict resolution, war and peace (irenics), and (5) global interdependence and development processes. There are other useful focal points, as well, such as minorities and women in development, rural and urban development strategies, and appropriate or intermediate technologies; but these are addressed elsewhere in this book. Therefore, this chapter will be structured in order to present the five central topics previously identified.

No attempt has been made to provide encyclopedic coverage on any topic. There will be many equally good curriculum materials that aren't mentioned here. These can be used to complement and supplement the items that have been described. Many of us will not be teaching in the United States, or in the English language. So it will be necessary to adapt and revise the plans laid out here, so that they will fit our social situation and linguistic circumstances. Even in many parts of the United States similar modifications ought to be made in order to meet local needs and concerns.

It is seldom possible to teach international development education as a subject in its own right. More often development topics are presented as dimensions of social studies, foreign language, home economics, technical training, or vocational agriculture programs. Need it be stated that they also ought to be important components in professional studies; such as business, engineering, law, medicine, nursing, social work and teaching? One of the chief tasks of international development educators is to see that this kind of learning is integrated into these many disciplines throughout the world.

Population

The term, "population," means different things to different people. The popular association with the world is fertility, in other words the number of births taking place in a society. At the same time, however, we need to recognize its link with mortality. One of the reasons for the large increases of population in the modern world has been better sanitation, nutrition and health care - making longer life expectancy possible. Also, population concerns are related to the depopulation of many rural, drought and famine areas, as millions of people leave the boondocks for urban sites. As a result of these movements, cities in most regions are now circled with shantytowns, called by various local names, in which the newcomers from the villages crowd in seeking a better life and increased opportunities.

Unfortunately, many Americans think that population education is just a code term for teaching birth control and family planning. They link this field of study with practices such as abortion, female circumcision and contraception which they may disapprove of; rather than regarding it as an opportunity for thoughtful inquiry into all of the causes and consequences of population events. It may therefore take some explanations and rethinking in order to be able to introduce population education in many communities.

Everyone is a population actor who is making population-related decisions. The sum of these individual choices shapes the national and global population forces - fertility, migration and mortality. These in turn determine many economic, political and social trends.

As has been repeatedly demonstrated, population dynamics are always a major factor to be considered in development planning. Although thousands of schools may have been built and phalanxes of teachers prepared to staff them, the end result of even the most vigorous basic education campaign will be even higher rates of illiteracy if the population continues to grow geometrically. Food production can be doubled, but this will not feed a society if its population quadrupled in the same years. Rows of houses can have been constructed and miles of roads built, but the nation will still find itself with intolerably crowded habitations and major traffic tie-ups if its birth rate rattles on upward.

> The population of the world is about 4 billion and the growth rate is approximately 2 per cent. This means that between 75 and 80 million people are being added annually. The world population is expected to double in about thirty-five years or around the year 2010. The current population situation is unique in man's experience: the highest growth rate in human history from the highest base in absolute numbers.
>
> Population Education: A Contemporary Concern. Paris: UNESCO Educational Studies and Documents, No. 28, 1978, p. 9.

These UNESCO authors realize that population education is important because changes in demography affect life on many levels. The numbers of people impact on the environment, food and nutrition, health and social services, education, employment, available resources, political relations and even human rights. Individuals, nations and regions of the world have different views on population questions, making for a very complex and impassioned debate.

Some people contend that population is a false issue intentionally manufactured by the West to divert attention from the substantive problems of the Third and Fourth Worlds. They claim that it isn't the numbers of people, but rather mal-distribution of resources and wealth that produces grave inequities. Poverty, they argue, is the outcome of colonial exploitation, not soaring birth rates. In fact, as they look at the situation, urging national policies of diminished numbers of births is just a form of racism. The white minority is prescribing a form of partial genocide on black, brown, red and yellow people.

Another part of the controversy concerns the fact that in many countries living conditions require having large families. Children are valued in order to work the land and care for the elderly for whom no other form of social security exists. In other words, from this perspective, the rich have their government subsidies and the poor have their children to care for them. Also, in some cases such as China and India, the government family planning policies contradict the long-established values and traditions of society.

Contrary to many peoples' opinions, not all countries have instituted official population programs by any means.

> Of 130 developing countries recently surveyed, thirty-three had official policies aimed at reducing the growth rate; sixty-four had no policy to reduce the growth rate and no family planning activities; thirty-one officially supported family planning activities (the position of two countries is unknown.)
>
> D. Nortman and E. Hofstatter, "Population and Family Planning Programs: A Factbook," Reports on Population/ Family Planning, No. 2, Eighth Edition. New York: The Population Council, 1976, p. 20.

Population changes are usually gradual, except when there are mass migrations or many deaths as a result of disasters or wars. Therefore many people will not detect "baby booms" or recognize that their community is aging while these processes are happening. They will perceive the demographic changes only long after the events took place, when their consequences finally become manifest. We are all facing problems that contain population components in them. We must make vital decisions about marriage or some other lifestyle, where and how we will live, when and if to move, and whether or not to parent children.

Nationally, each country's policy makers have to contend with population issues. They may raise the minimum age of legal marriage, vote to give sudsidies to childbearing adults, or popularize one and two child families as the ideal. They may foster emigration to take the pressure off of scarce resources. They may institute educational programs on family life and responsible parenthood. If there is to be a participatory democracy where the citizens of the country help make the choices, then extensive population education is a necessity.

The problem isn't so much to recognize the need for population education, as to devise the means for providing effective instruction in this realm. What we teach must be accurate and timely, so inquiry and studies of population matters are required.

CHART EIGHT

A POPULATION POLICY CHECKLIST

1. What sorts of population information are currently available to the public?

___ 1.1 Birth control information in doctor's offices and clinics?

___ 1.2 Instructions enclosed in birth control devices such as condoms, gels and pills?

___ 1.3 School and college sex education programs?

___ 1.4 Public displays of contraceptives with information about their use and discussions of the ethical issues involved?

___ 1.5 Media coverage of population issues in newspapers, and on radio and television?

___ 1.6 Dissemination of government laws and policies regarding population affairs?

___ 1.7 Publicity about the population related pronouncements of religious bodies?

2. What population technologies are being practiced?

___ 2.1 Continence

___ 2.2 Sterilization

___ 2.3 Vasectomy

___ 2.4 Abortion

___ 2.5 "Guest Worker" Programs

___ 2.6 Refugee Resettlement

___ 2.7 Legal and illegal Emigration/Immigration

3. What financing exists for population programs?

___ 3.1 Charitable Groups

___ 3.2 Foundations

___ 3.3 Government Funds

___ 3.4 Health Insurance

___ 3.5 Personal Fees

___ 3.6 Private Information Services

___ 3.7 Religious Organizations

4. What are the population attitudes in your community and society?

___ 4.1 Pro-natalist - baby cult, women expected to produce children

___ 4.2 Sexist - preference for male over female neonates, fathers make child bearing decisions

___ 4.3 Discrimination - unmarried individuals are penalized in taxes, credit, housing and inheritance

___ 4.4 Prejudice - against homosexuals and lesbians

___ 4.5 Subsidies - People with large families get tax write-offs, housing options, better vacation and travel opportunities

___ 4.6 Expansionist - more people are needed to pioneer and settle the frontier

___ 4.7 Militarist - males are required for the national armed forces

Adapted from The Population Activist's Handbook: The Population Institute. New York: Collier Books, Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1974, p. 10.

You and your students can obtain dependable data on population matters from organizations such as:

Planned Parenthood/World Population
McCormick Library
810 Seventh Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10019

The Population Council
245 Park Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10017

Population Reference Bureau
1755 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

Sex Information and Education Council of the United States (SIECUS)
1855 Broadway
New York, N.Y. 10023

Zero Population Growth
1346 Connecticut Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

Overseas, there are population and family planning institutes in many countries that provide similar information.

Population education is not just a matter of communicating information, however. It also depends on student involvement in order to be effective. One means of engaging the learners in thoughtful dialogue is using graphs that help them to comprehend the situation. A very useful collection of charts and graphs that can easily be reproduced as overhead transparencies or slides is provided in:

Jonas and Jonathan Salk
World Population and Human Values: A New Reality.
New York: Harper Colophon Books, 1981, 1982.

The Salks' interpretation and assessment of global population trendsis presented in the form of a pictographic essay.

Another good instructional method is enacting role plays and scenarios that depict actual population dilemmas. These can lead to discussions of the moral issues that are involved in forming demographic policies. Sometimes films can also be well utilized. Here are several possibilities.

> Population: Boom or Doom? Color, 60 min., 1973.
> ABC Media Concepts, 1330 Avenue of the Americas, New York, N.Y. 10019
>
> This film concerns population numbers, sex education, contraception and immigration. It stresses the quality of life, not simply the population crisis.
>
> A Single Step. Color, 28 min.
> World Population, 810 Seventh Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10019
>
> Ecology, limiting population growth, and forms of birth control are the topics dealt with in this production.

Perhaps the most effective population education learning experiences involve field trips to agencies related to demographics in your community. These might include regional planning offices, health and social service centers, day care centers for children, homes for unwed mothers, adoption agencies, and geriatric facilities.

You might also suggest that your students monitor the effects of overcrowding on their lives.

CHART NINE

AN OVERCROWDING INQUIRY

1. How much of your time is spent in these lines?

___ 1.1 Auto licensing and emissions testing

___ 1.2 Bank

___ 1.3 Bus

___ 1.4 Cinema (Movie Theater)

___ 1.5 Parking

___ 1.6 Restaurant

___ 1.7 Store

___ 1.8 Supermarket Check Out

___ 1.9 Traffic jam

___ 1.10 Voting

2. What social problems are attributable, in whole or in part, to population growth?

___ 2.1 Crime

___ 2.2 Declining quality of life

___ 2.3 Deforestation

___ 2.4 Delinquency

___ 2.5 High Taxes

___ 2.6 Lack of recreation space

___ 2.7 Noise

___ 2.8 Pollution

___ 2.9 Urban blight

___ 2.10 War

3. How is demography related to these public policy issues?

___ 3.1 Automobiles

___ 3.2 Highway construction

___ 3.3 Hospital expansion

___ 3.4 Power plants

___ 3.5 Schools

___ 3.6 Sewers

___ 3.7 Solid waste disposal

___ 3.8 Subdivisions

___ 3.9 Suburbs

___ 3.10 Telephones

Students can also engage in population activism by planning and testing out teaching materials to be used by learners of various ages, or by creating media on population issues. They can work through population groups in the community, or join national organizations that have demographic concerns. They can compile fact sheets about legal decisions that affect population affairs such as the codes regulating family planning, abortion, sex education, land use, rights of the elderly and inheritance. In many places it is possible to lobby in order to influence legislation, and individuals or representatives of organizations are encouraged to testify at legislative inquiries. They might also learn about the statements concerning population policies that have been made by the spokesmen for various religious bodies. In short, population education can and ought to be a dynamic and engaging field of study.

Food and Hunger

Nutrition, especially adequate caloric and protein intakes, is fundamental to healthy growth and normal learning. Yet conservative estimates are that at least 500 million people in our world are hungry - 100 million of them are thought by UNESCO to be children under the age of five. Hunger related causes bring death every year to between fifteen and twenty million people. Most of the hungry millions on the globe live in the southern hemisphere; however, some forty million citizens of the United States of America are malnourished. These are grim facts that demand an earnest response because hunger is a solvable problem. Enough food is and can be grown on earth to feed everyone. The food crisis is an abnormal condition created by policy mistakes and distribution breakdowns.

- A farmer in North Africa is hungry because the soil has become too sandy to grow crops.
- A Turkish villager is hungry because the rent that must be paid for the family's tenant farm is so high.
- A family in Bangladesh is hungry because there are so many mouths to feed.
- A Honduran farmer raises bananas for export, so his own family lacks the food that was once grown on their soil.

- A migrant farm laborer in California is hungry because she has been unable to work due to illness caused by long hours in the fields, poor nutrition and lack of basic sanitation.
- A worker in northeast Brazil is hungry due to recurrent drought.
- A farmer in India is hungry because pests destroyed a large part of the crop.
- A fellahin in Egypt is hungry because irrigation water and fertilizer cost so much that he earns little from his labor.

All of these causes, and more, contribute to hunger - unproductive soil, inequitable land distribution, high birth rates, single crop economies, overwork, drought, wastage, and escalating fertilizer and irrigation expenses. These are all aspects of the general condition called poverty. They are the situations that development programs are supposed to overcome.

An excellent instructional tool for helping students to comprehend the dynamics of world food and hunger problems is: "Food for All: Teaching against Hunger," Intercom #102. New York: Global Perspectives in Education, Inc., 1982. It contains six lessons in which the students engage in many participatory activities, such as charting their own daily food intake. They are taught that overeating can also cause malnutrition through taking in too much alcohol, cholesterol, fat, salt and sugar. Many individuals in the northern hemisphere are suffering from obesity as a result of these types of malnutrition.

Role playing is another activity in which the students might engage. For example, they might dramatize a confrontation between marginal subsistence farmers and the wholesale "middlemen" who purchase their crops. The produce is sold in the city after there has been a dramatic increase in the seller's profit margin. Let the students imagine that an agricultural expert meets with the two groups in order to help them find a way out of the impasse. What would the conversation be like? What changes might the specialist recommend? What might the scenario be in subsequent days and months?

Moving from immediate, local problems the students need to go on to examine the complex causes of global hunger. Which are economic? Which are cultural? Which are educational? Which are social? Which are political? Which are scientific? Which are technological?

Is scarcity a natural condition, as some people claim? Are food imbalances an inescapable result of supply and demand, as many are being told? Can hunger be overcome simply by increasing food production? How does industrialization and export trade affect food policies in the Third and Fourth Worlds?

CHART TEN

SEVEN KEY FOOD QUESTIONS

1. What relationships can you see between hunger and poverty?
2. How do food issues increase the interconnectedness among people?
3. How do technological transfers affect food production?
4. Is malnutrition found only in poor countries?
5. How do the policies of governments impact on the availability of foodstuffs?
6. How do local land policies affect food issues?
7. How are educational processes involved in food production and distribution to overcome hunger?

The Hungry Millions: A Text Book on World Development. London: Workers' Educational Association in conjunction with Oxfam, no date given, is another curriculum of food issues for school children. In this case, the learners are to be British. The lessons encourage exploring the contrasts in life style between the "rich world" and the "poor world." Food intake is one aspect of this disparity. Others are one's level of health, chances for education, and direct dependence on agriculture.

The students will soon find out that:

> The two thirds of the world's population that live in the developing countries inhabit the areas that contain most of the mountain ranges, and all the tropical rain forests. They enjoy the tropical climate of heat, drought, and seasonal torrential rain. They live with the pests and diseases that flourish in these conditions - the locust, the tsetse fly, and the malarial mosquito, to name only a few. (p. 16)

In other words, natural resources are not distributed equitably. Thus, factors that affect food production are more critical in the Third and Fourth Worlds.

1. Water
2. Seeds
3. Drainage
4. Fertilizer
5. Pest Control
6. Crop Storage
7. Stock Improvement
8. Tools and Machinery
9. Alternative Food Supplies
10. Land Reform

Strategies for improving the production and distribution of food are discussed in the latter sections of this curriculum guide.

Perhaps the most thorough examination of food problems for educators is in Suzanne C. Toton, World Hunger: The Responsibility of Christian Education. Maryknoll, N.Y.: Orbis Books, 1982. Toton reviews alternative explanations of the causes of world hunger. She finds that the roots of Third World poverty formed in three phases. It started with the establishment of colonial dependence in many parts of the world by imperial merchantilist powers. Among them have been Belgium, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Portugal, Ottoman Turkey, Spain, Czarist Russia and the Soviet Union, and the United States. It is striking that today's chief donors of aid and assistance are these same nations, joined by Australia, Canada and Japan.

Colonial dependence, according to Toton, was later translated into new forms of economic and industrial dependence. Since World War II she believes that a new phase of dependence has been fostered by transnational corporations, the terms of world trade, and the international monetary system. In her opinion, it is this on-going paradigm of exploitation and dependency that underlies today's world food crisis.

Global food policies are also affected by the structure of international aid. Bilateral aid, for example, often is mainly military and contributes little to improving the availability of food for the majority of poor people in the receiving nation. Multilateral aid is frequently absorbed by the bureaucracy without ever penetrating down to the poorest segments of the society - individuals who are hungry and malnourished.

Toton points out theological sources of values that can lead us to recognizing our responsibility for the world's poor and hungry people. She refers to the European "Theology of Hope" and to Third World "Liberation Theology," which both address food issues. The western political theology does so by teaching the rightness of growth, progress and efficiency. Their moral justification is that by these means abundance can be created so that everyone can be well nourished. The liberation theologians, on the contrary, stress first rectifying inequities and exploitation. In their view, hunger is a part of the larger problems of social injustice and the lack of human rights.

By reflecting on these contending positions, it becomes evident that religion can function in several ways to address the global food issue. The beliefs of western Christianity have supported competition and free enterprise. Thus, they help to preserve capitalist approaches to making food policies. The liberation outlook, which has its advocates among Buddhists, Hindus, Jews and Muslims - as well as Third World Christians - struggles to create basic social changes. Often these are instituted by socialist or communist regimes. These approaches, too, have encountered practical difficulties in alleviating hunger and malnutrition for all of their citizens. In short, there is no political panacea that cures all food problems everywhere. But certainly policies that bring better nourishment to the worst fed are everywhere called for.

A compilation of college-level course outlines and syllabi is presented in World Food/Hunger Studies. New York, N.Y.: Transnational University Program, Institute for World Order (now the World Policy Institute), 1977. These plans include analyses of the political economies that affect food issues, studies of how food policies are formed, nutrition concerns, and ethical inquiries about food and hunger as international development issues.

You and your students can obtain current data on food and hunger issues from several research organizations.

Institute for Food and Development Policy
Box 57
Hastings-on-Hudson, New York 10706

International Development Research Centre
Suite 309
1028 Connecticut Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

Strategies for Responsible Development
Box 93
University of Dayton
Dayton, OH 45469

Worldwatch Institute
1776 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

Organizations that are channels for active participation in combatting hunger and food crises include:

Bread for the World
32 Union Square, East
New York, N.Y. 10003

CARE (Cooperative for American Relief Everywhere)
660 First Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10016

OXFAM-America
115 Broadway
Boston, MA 02116

Human Rights and Social Justice

"A Declaration of Interdependence" made by Henry Steele Commanger on October 24, 1975 begins a comprehensive curriculum guide issued by the World Affairs Council of Philadelphia, Interdependence: A Curriculum Aid. Philadelphia, PA: School District of Philadelphia, 1977. Eight units of instruction for high school students include: Food and Nutrition; Global Economy - Money, Trade, Development; Human Rights; Oceans - The New Frontier; Peace and Disarmament; Resource Scarcity; Science and Technology; and World Law and International Institutions. This arrangement demonstrates how human rights education interfaces with all the other aspects of comprehensive development.

The Philadelphia human rights unit is based on the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations. Parts of this document were already cited in the introductory chapter. The problem is to move from rhetoric to implementing these ideals in reality. The process by which these historic commitments were made on behalf of all humankind is traced. A battery of appropriate readings regarding human rights and their violations is suggested, and other resources and instructional media are listed. The curriculum designers urge that simulations and involvement exercises such as "Bafa Bafa," a cross-cultural experience, and "Star Power" be used.

The students who take this course in Philadelphia are requested to write to American minority organizations in order to inquire about their experiences with infringements on their human rights. Similar groups could undoubtedly be found in other societies.

CHART ELEVEN

AMERICAN MINORITY RIGHTS ORGANIZATIONS

American Indian Movement
Room 618, 156 Fifth Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10010

B'nai B'rith
1640 Rhode Island Ave., N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

C.O.R.E. (Congress of Racial Equality)
200 West 135th Street
New York, N.Y. 10030

La Raza
3571 City Terrace Drive
Los Angeles, CA 90063

N.A.A.C.P. (National Association for the Advancement of Colored People)
1790 Broadway
New York, N.Y. 10019

N.O.W. (National Organization for Women)
47 East Nineteenth Street
New York, N.Y. 10011

Urban League (National)
500 East Sixty-second Street
New York, N.Y. 10020

An international perspective on protecting human rights is taken by an organization called Amnesty International, founded in 1961. The AI headquarters in the United States are at 304 West Fifty-eighth Street, New York, N.Y. 10019. Local AI groups correspond with prisoners of conscience in many countries. They write to government officials protesting human rights violations, and seek to inform the public about problem areas. Of special value are detailed AI reports about human rights conditions in specific nations. If a regime has a policy of repression for dissidents, or refuses to recognize the valid aspirations of its minorities, these factors are important because they negatively affect the possibilities of healthy development in the society.

Brian Wren has written Education for Justice: Pedagogical Principles. Maryknoll, N.Y.: Orbis Books, 1977, 1982. A minister of the United Reformed Church in Great Britain, Wren begins this exploration of the theme of justice in educational ethics and philosophy by discussing how knowing takes place and the relationships between what we know and what we do. He characterizes one form of education as "cultural oppression" and contrasts with this extreme the development of "critical consciousness." The current debate between transmission and performance criteria models of learning on the one hand, and self-fulfilling, problem solving alternatives on the other, is considered. Wren contends that the second type of education best serves the cause of justice. In place of rote memorization, mental recall, information transfer and imposing externally prescribed goals on the learners, it stresses serving the individual's personal goals to be articulate, informed and able to carry out their basic aims and achieve their aspirations.

Justice is then defined by Wren as "the idea of giving people their due - what they deserve or ought to have." Impartiality, generality and democracy are thus involved in the concept of justice. It is a commitment to fairness: equal liberty, economic and social equity, and open access to opportunities. These are the aims of development programs anywhere that have been conceived in light of moral principles. A recognition of the specific aspects of justice in society helps development specialists to assess the impact of their efforts using these, as well as other more quantitative criteria.

As a Christian clergyman, Wren goes on to discuss how justice is understood in the Christian faith. This part of his inquiry could be paralleled with similar investigations of this realm in other religion belief systems. It serves notice that teaching themes and topics concerning justice brings instruction squarely into the domain of values. Not everyone's values are derived from religious commitments, of course, but in many parts of the world religious perspectives are dominant and development workers ignore them at their peril.

Accompanying Wren's monograph is an extensive curriculum guide: Thomas P. Fenton, ed. Education for Justice: A Resource Manual. Maryknoll, N.Y.: Orbis Books, 1975. Fenton has brought together an extensive collection of instructional materials. Written from a Roman Catholic Christian point of view, this anthology features five sections - Content, Background Readings, Educational Designs, The Course of Studies, and Resources.

The suggested curriculum is focussed on critical development issues such as reformist versus revolutionary change, personal versus structural change, development goals versus liberation ideals, and patent injustice versus just behavior. Economic and political development goals are examined, and the students will learn about organizational structures for cooperative collaboration as different from those characterized by being competing collectivities. The students will be challenged to explain what their concepts of "charity" and "service" mean in today's world.

Perhaps the most valuable utilization of this curriculum would be as a vehicle for dialogue. For example, although the compiler seems to be critical of capitalism, he does not even handedly examine alternative socio-economic systems such as fascist, democratic socialist and communist. Papal pronouncements

and those made by the U.S. Council of Roman Catholic Bishops are presented. Declarations on human rights and social justice from other authorities, however, are omitted. Education for Justice, therefore, provides a starting point, but it is too encapsulated in a single cultural heritage to be a comprehensive study guide.

Conflict Resolution, War and Peace Studies: Irenics

Yale University psychiatrist, Robert Jay Lifton, tells of receiving a letter from a college provost who confessed,

> I have a minor nightmare that in the year 2050 there will be some hypothetical survivors looking in disbelief at our 1981 and 1982 catalogues. It's as if, living at the edge of the cliff, the Academy seemed not to care.
>
> Dick Ringler, "Nuclear War Education: Teaching the Most Important Academic Subject," Academe, Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors, 69(6), November-December, 1983, pp. 11 - 15.

That the prospect of an impending holocaust caused the provost only a "minor" nightmare is appalling. Yet in school after school, located in country after country, from elementary through advanced levels, no formal instruction regarding global policies of security, war and peace exists. Truly, it is as if the threat of the nuclear crisis has been blocked out of the minds of the majority of educators in the world today.

Development education inescapably entails studying how conflicts are formed and resolved. It requires that we examine all of the aspects of security - population and food security, for example, as well as military and political security. Nuclear weapons are the ultimate in man's destructive capacity, but there are many forms of violence that threaten humanity. This whole field is related to development because conflict, security and violence are dimensions of development processes. Some are necessary and desirable; others are avoidable and potentially destructive.

A good point of entry into educational irenics is inquiring about the dynamics of conflict. Five focal points of tension can be identified.

CHART TWELVE

CONFLICT POINTS

1. Inner conflicts - personal friction and ambivalence

2. Interpersonal conflicts - confrontations between individuals in families, work groups, at school, among peers, and in social life

3. Neighborhood and Community social conflicts - racial friction, ethnic group encounters, struggles between occupational groups, fights between political organizations, religious denominations, employers and their employees, and terrorism

4. Conflicts within Nations - regional rivalries, coastal areas versus the interior, the capital city versus outlying sections of the country, industrialized versus agrarian sectors, civil wars

5. International conflicts - variations in intensity from minor skirmishes along the borders between rival nation-states, to international subversion, struggles among blocks of countries, and super-power "cold wars." The degrees of violence run from verbal confrontations through military aggression and on to the threat of nuclear genocide.

When we teach methods of conflict resolution, we must help our students realize that conflict is caused by two distinct, but interrelated, motives.

CHART THIRTEEN

CONFLICT MOTIVES

Struggles over resources for meeting individual or collective physical needs in order to sustain and enhance life such as air, water, food, and the materials for producing clothing, shelter, energy and goods.

Friction that is related to psychological needs such as achievement, aspirations, authority, group membership, prestige, power and status.

Human action to resolve conflicts is of one of these four alternative types.

CHART FOURTEEN

GENERIC CONFLICT RESOLUTION METHODS

NEGOTIATION between or among the contenders.

ARBITRATION by a third party acceptable to both antagonists

WITHDRAWAL by avoiding the adversary.

AGGRESSION by verbally or physically attacking the opponent.

All of these methods of resolving conflicts occur in international development programs and projects. Obviously, the less violent approaches are preferable to the ones involving aggression.

Planned instructional units on peace studies exist for all age groups. Priscilla Prutzman, et. al., Children's Creative Response to Conflict Program, Second Edition, Revised and Enlarged. New York: Quaker Project on Community Conflict, 1975, for example, is aimed at small children. The material for it began to be prepared in the early 1970's in response to the crowd violence that was then taking place in American cities. Children were actually witnessing riots and arson.

The educators evolved their approaches through workshops and then actually tested out the materials with fourth, fifth and sixth grade children in inner city elementary schools. They describe games, exercises and teaching techniques for helping children to build a sense of cooperation and community. Listening, observation and speaking skills are taught in order to improve communication within the group. A range of methods for resolving conflicts that may emerge and encouraging nonviolence are developed. Among the processes used are small group discussions, drawing pictures that represent each person's perceptions of the situation, puppetry, creating imaginative fairy tales, folk dancing, role playing and card sorting in order to identify the person's choice preferences. All of these methods are equally appropriate for use in development projects.

The children who use this curriculum will have learning experiences based on hypothetical themes such as exclusion/inclusion, bullies/timidity, street problems, and acting as mediators when a confrontation has taken place. These are certainly valuable skills that contribute to socialization, the ability to work with other people, and learning to be assertive without becoming violent.

A typical song that the children learn is called "Magic Penny" and was written by Malvina Reynolds.

CHART FIFTEEN

MAGIC PENNY

Love is something if you give it away,
Give it away, Give it away -
Love is something if you give it away,
You end up having more.

It's just like a magic penny,
Hold it tight and you won't have any.
Lend it, spend it, and you'll have so many
They'll roll all over the floor.

Copyright 1955, 1958 by the Northern Music Company,
445 Park Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10022

Another curriculum for younger learners is by Sissel Volan, An Approach to Peace Education: A Teaching Unit on Disarmament, Development and the Child. New York: UNICEF Development Education School Series, Number Six, 1980. It is intended for children between the ages of nine and fourteen. Volan poses a series of vital choices.

CHART SIXTEEN

THE CHOICE IS OURS

It costs about as much:

to arm and train one soldier,

as to provide education for eighty children.

to produce one jet fighter,

as to equip 40,000 village pharmacies.

to construct one submarine,

as to build 450,000 new houses.

The cost of one tank at $500,000,

could provide equipment for 520 primary school classrooms with thirty children each.

Students of irenics must come to realize that militarism is draining the resources that otherwise could be deployed for development.

> The developed nations spend twenty times more on their military programs than they do on all forms of economic assistance to poorer countries. The annual world military expenditures exceed U.S. $500,000 million!
>
> The developing countries are importing arms at a rate exceeding $6 billion a year. In fact, the Third World today accounts for 70 per cent of the global arms trade.

A curriculum aimed at high school students is by Paul W. Graseck, Blessed are the Peacemakers. A Study of Violence: Prejudice, Personal and Peer Abuse, and War; and of Non-Violence: Civil Disobedience, War Resistance, Disarmament and Pacifism. Nyack, N.Y.: The Council for Religion in Independent Schools, 1982. Graseck planned these lessons and taught them for over seven years at the Moses Brown School, Providence, Rhode Island. Fifty-four short activities are described, almost always involving the students in activities about which they are encouraged to reflect and draw their own conclusions. Although Quaker ideas are included, this material also concerns Buddhist, other Christian, and Jewish perspectives.

CHART SEVENTEEN

MY ATTITUDE TOWARD AGGRESSION

1.1 ___ Unemployment and underemployment are forms of structural violence.

1.2 ___ Violent revolution is wrong.

1.3 ___ Screaming at someone is a good way to let them know that you are angry.

1.4 ___ Suicide is a terribly violent act.

1.5 ___ Terrorism is never justified.

1.6 ___ Competitiveness is a sign of good mental health.

1.7 ___ Violence is generally learned behavior, it is not innate.

1.8 ___ Violence is acceptable if it is used to protect the weak and helpless.

1.9 ___ Wars will always occur because there is an aggressive tendency in human nature.

1.10 __ Nuclear weapons are the ultimate form of violence.

Adapted from p. 21.

A junior high school instructional unit of ten lessons has been prepared by the Union of Concerned Scientists, in cooperation with the Massachusetts Teachers Association and the National Education Association. It is called Choices: A Unit on Conflict and Nuclear War. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1983. Each lesson is first summarized, then its purposes are explained, necessary materials for it are listed, and the teaching and learning processes involved are described.

Extensive use is made of individual work sheets for the students to use, and the guide has an appendix loaded with detailed information. This material especially conveys the threat of nuclear holocaust. The young people are to find out about radioactivity and radiation sickness. Ways to reduce the risk of nuclear warfare are examined, and the students are challenged to think about how the national budget could be changed in order to give priority to a comprehensive program of worldwide development.

CHART EIGHTEEN

A PROPOSED NATIONAL BUDGET

Category

1. Social Needs

Education and Culture

Food and Nutrition

Job Training

Social Services

2. Social Security, Retirement and Unemployment Compensation

3. National Defense

4. Physical Needs

National Resources and Environment

Transportation

Housing

Community Development

5. Health

Medical Research

Medical Programs for the Elderly, Handicapped and Poor

6. Science and Politics

Energy

Science and Technology

Agriculture

International Affairs

Note: Interest on the national debt and government administrative costs have not been included in this exercise. Actual figures of expenditure for each budget year of the United States can be obtained from: Office of Management and Budget, Executive Office of the President. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 198-. Similar data is available from most other governments.

(p. 59.)

A peace studies program for adults was worked out by Betty Reardon and is called Militarization, Security and Peace Education: A Guide for Concerned Citizens. Valley Forge, PA: United Ministries in Education, Educational Ministries, ABC, 1982. Objectives, content and methods for four inquiry sessions are presented, as well as a suggested format for an additional action and planning meeting. Reardon follows a three-step format: (1) Awareness of a problem, (2) Analysis of the issues involved, and (3) Action. She takes a values clarification approach that includes exploring images of peace in order to transcend habits andtraditions that undermine peaceful relationships.

Whatever the group with which we work, it is always necessary to clarify the key concepts related to peace studies. Here are ten important ideas that also are linked with wholesome or debilitating international development.

CHART NINETEEN

IDEAS IN IRENICS

1. aggression - acts that are designed to injure or kill other people.
2. arms race - competition among nations to devise and obtain the weapons of war.
3. conflict - real or imagined friction and disagreement among individuals or groups; which can lead to confrontation, aggression and hostility.
4. civil disobedience - breaking immoral or unjust laws as a form of protest, with full willingness to accept the consequences of one's actions.
5. disarmament - the bilateral or unilateral reduction or abolition of military armaments and forces by a national government.
6. genocide - an official policy aimed at eradicating a minority.
7. pacificism - opposition to violence and war in the belief that disputes ought to be settled peaceably.

Global Interdependence and Development

Ask groups of the students in your class to go to local food stores. There they should make a survey of the products for sale. Where were the items grown? Who produced them? How were they probably transported to North America and shipped to New England? A short inquiry of this type will quickly make the students more aware of one aspect of global interdependence.

Another way that their recognition of international links can be enhanced is to refer to a manufacturer's directory for their community or state. Directories of this type can be found in library reference rooms. The questions that the students can raise are:

1. What raw materials are required in these manufacturing processes? Which are local? Which come from other parts of the United States? Which are imported from other countries?

2. What parts are contracted out, later to be assembled in the final product? Which parts are produced locally? Which are made within the state? Which are brought in from other states? Which are shipped in from overseas?

3. What ethnic and national groups participate in this manufacturing process? Investment? Management? Supervision? Labor? Sales? Distribution?

4. What are the utilization or consumption patterns of this product? Where is it marketed? Who is likely to buy it? How is it usually utilized? With what other products does it compete? What portion of the market does it command?

Again, the students will very quickly become aware of the complex network of intercultural and international relationships in commerce and industry. Similarly, they could investigate the domains of the fine arts, crafts, literature, music or sports. In all of these realms they will recognize interdependence.

Perhaps the most vital question that can be explored is, "In such an interdependent world, what types of development are needed?"

CHART TWENTY

DEVELOPMENT TYPES

PERSONAL MATURATION AND THE GROWTH OF HEALTHY SELF IDENTITY

INCREASED FOOD PRODUCTION AND DISTRIBUTION

BETTER HEALTH AND SANITATION

EXPANDED AND EQUITABLE OPPORTUNITIES FOR LEARNING AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING

NEW AND GREATER SOURCES OF INVESTMENT CAPITAL

INDUSTRIALIZATION

COMMERCIALIZATION

APPLICATIONS OF APPROPRIATE, SMALL SCALE TECHNOLOGY

PRESERVATION AND ENHANCEMENT OF CULTURE

MORE EFFICIENT BUREACRACY AND DEMOCRATIC DECISION MAKING

BETTER SUPPORT INFASTRUCTURES SUCH AS ROADS AND MASS MEDIA

IMPROVED LIVING CONDITIONS

ADDRESS THE POVERTY OF THE POOREST PEOPLE IN THE SOCIETY

REDEPLOYMENT OF RESOURCES THROUGH REDUCTION OF MILITARY SPENDING

Perhaps the best way to find out about these options is to interview people from various parts of the world who have perspectives regarding development issues. Also, of course, the actual development plans of various nations can be studied in order to learn which priorities were set. Often, gaps or differences of opinion can be recognized between the development preferences of individuals in a society, and that nation's official development strategies. Then the question becomes one of finding ways to influence the local and national development processes.

Overall, then, instruction regarding population, food and hunger issues, human rights and social justice, conflict resolution, global interdependence and development processes is vitally needed. Yet in the majority of cases, school curricula can be carefully examined but will demonstrate nowhere any systematic teaching about these issues. One of the chief tasks of international development educators should be to assess current programs of instruction in their countries, and help to plan and implement adequate teaching in these fields. This will require not only preparing the necessary instructional media, but also preparing pre- and in-service teachers so that they can and will teach their students the information they need in order to participate in and contribute to development in their homelands.

CHAPTER THREE

SUGGESTED READINGS

Abraham, Herbert J. World Problems in the Classroom. A Teacher's Guide to Some United Nations Tasks. Paris: UNESCO, 1973.

Emphasizing the efforts of the United Nations and its related agencies, many topics related to international development education are treated. Among them are population, food and hunger, human rights, social justice for workers, and peace, security and disarmament. There are also sections on ending colonialism, raising standards of living, the human environment, health, children, and the advancement of education, science and culture. The book stresses description and information. It recommends largely cognitive learning with little attention given to actually involving the students in any development processes.

Becker, James M., ed. Schooling for a Global Age. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1979.

The goal of this publication is to convey methodologies for global education - teaching elementary and secondary students to think of themselves as participants in world society. A fictional, ideal global education program is described. Appropriate instructional media, administrative policies and teaching approaches are then presented. There is an extensive annotated bibliography and a list of relevant programs and projects.

Haavelsrud, Magnus, ed. Education for Peace: Reflection and Action. Guildford, Surrey, England, U.K.: IPC Science and Technology Press, Ltd., 1976.

These proceedings of the First International Conference of the World Council for Curriculum and Instruction are a mixed bag. Some are humdrum, others insightful. They are organized in four sections. "Peace Education in Relation to the World" includes a discussion among Adam Curle, Paulo Freire and Johan Galtung. There are contributions from Colombia, India, Japan, Kenya and Nigeria in "Reports of Action Projects." "Reflections on the Parameters of Education for Peace" deals with issues like apartheid, values and lifelong learning. The final section, "Action Plans and Follow-Ups," suggests some practical approaches.

Henderson, James L. Education for World Understanding. Oxford, Ungland, U.K.: Pergamon Press, Ltd., 1968.

Although written about fifteen years ago, most of the material in this monograph is still timely. Henderson begins by making inquiries into humanity's collective actions such as politics, religion, sport, trade and war. Writing from a British perspective, he discusses means of integrating global studies into the conventional school disciplines. He recommends investigations of comparative nationalism, and world studies through continuing and adult education, inquiry into the images used by various cultures, and investigations of the refugee phenomenon.

Jones, Gavin Population Growth and Educational Planning in Developing Nations. New York: Halsted Press Division of John Wiley and Sons, 1975.

Relationships between population and educational trends and goals in developing countries, and their implications, are explored. Demographic obstacles to educational progress are identified. Case studies of population education programs in Singapore, Sri Lanka and Thailand are given. The monograph concludes with explanations of how educational factors affect population growth, declining fertility and the labor market.

King, Edith W. Worldmindedness - The World: Context for Teaching in the Elementary School. Dubuque, IA: William C. Brown Co., Publishers, 1971.

King has written ten chapters about global studies in elementary schools. She suggests methods for introducing multiculturalism, and demonstrates how to teach about the world through art, language, music and the social sciences. She also recognizes the need of many children to know more about life in inner cities and suburbia, as part of their socialization and moral development. She stresses using local resources in order to encourage children to develop a sense of worldwide community.

Kline, David and David Harman, eds. Issues in Population Education. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books, 1976.

Kline and Harman provide thorough discussions of four key aspects of population education. Its context, types and objectives are presented in the first four chapters. Ethical, legal and cultural factors related to population education constitute the focus of the next three chapters. Content, curriculum and training on population affairs make up four chapters, with special stress placed on non-school constituencies and the use of games in learning programs. The book concludes with chapters related to research and evaluation in the population education field.

Myers, Robert G. Education and Emigration: Study Abroad and the Migration of Human Resources. New York: David McKay Company, 1972.

Myers suggests a paradigm of human resources migration involving emigration, education and employment. He analyzes the problem of the non-return to their homelands of foreign students, making cross-national comparisons of push and pull, gain and loss. Alternative models of decisions to cope with these problems are introduced. The book also contains several case studies, and an assessment of policy implications in this area.

The World Bank The Assault on World Poverty. Problems of Rural Development, Education and Health. Baltimore, MD: The Johns Hopkins University Press, 1975.

Major sections of this anthology deal with rural development, agricultural credit, land reform and health. There is also an extensive treatment of education, with an explication of education and development trends during the 1970's. The contributors discuss educational strategies, and give an overview of World Bank lending policies and programs in the field of education. The themes of equity, efficiency, skills formation, and planning to ensure mass participation in education are stressed.

CURRICULUM MATERIALS

Many items have been mentioned and cited in the text of this chapter. Here are a few additional resources.

Alternatives to Violence - A Manual for Teaching Peacemaking to Youth and Adults. Cleveland, OH: Alternatives to Violence Project of the Cleveland Friends Meeting, 1984. Order from: Alternatives to Violence Project, Cleveland Friends Meeting, 10916 Magnolia Drive, Cleveland, OH 44106. $6.95 per copy, plus $1 postage.

A course outline, session by session teacher's guide, case studies and readings are provided; as well as a bibliography and glossary. All of the contents were actually tested in local schools.

Nesbitt, William A., ed. Teaching about War and Its Control. A Selective Annotated Bibliography for the Social Studies Teacher. Albany, N.Y.: Center for International Programs and Comparative Studies, The State Education Department, The University of the State of New York, 1972. 93 pp.

Although now a decade old, this is still a helpful list that also identifies organizations in the peace education field. Some twenty sub-topics are those that teachers are likely to wish to include in their instructional programs.

Teaching about Population: A Guide to Discussion, Study, and Resources. Intercom, Number Seventy-two, May, 1973. Center for War/Peace Studies, 218 East 18th Street, New York, N.Y. 10003.

Teachers will value Sloan R. Wayland's "Population Education: Orientation for the Teacher" and "A Teaching Unit on Population" although both will require updating.

Teaching Notes on Population. New York,N.Y.: Foreign Area Materials Center, 1973.

Several issues of this journal were published in the 1970's. Textbooks on demography and population studies were reviewed, and there were lists of audio-visual media appropriate for population instruction.

Toward a Better World. A Multimedia Kit about Economic Development. Washington, D.C.: World Bank Educational Materials, The World Bank, 1981.

This instructional unit was developed for tenth and eleventh grade students with the help of school systems in the District of Columbia, Maryland and Virginia. It presents three inquiries. One is on "Tackling Poverty in Rural Mexico." Another is about "Small-scale Industries in Kenya." The third concerns "The Rajasthan Canal Project" in India. For each topic there is a book of reading material for the students, a teacher's guide, and a film strip. Also, cards with statistical data for Mexico, Kenya and India are provided. These case studies are intended to be used in high school courses in world geography and history, current affairs and global studies.

FILMS

All of these media are listed in the United Nations Film and Video Catalogue, 1983 with 1984 Supplement. Department of Public Information, United Nations. Radio and Visual Services Division, New York, N.Y. 10017. Telephone: (212) 754-6953.

The Impossible Dream. 8 min., color, 1984.

Made in Czechoslovakia, this animated film without narration portrays the double workload women everywhere have as workers and homemakers.

Journey for Survival. 15 min., color, 1981.

Drought and desertification are presented along with the international efforts to bring everyone a safe and adequate water supply. Water issues in Ethiopia, Yemen, Peru, India, Bangladesh and the Philippines are shown.

Partners for Change. 26 min., color, 1982.

UN Volunteers from eighty countries are serving in some ninety developing nations and this film portrays their work in Bhutan, the Comoro Islands and the Yemen Arab Republic.

Souls in the Sun. 27 min., color, 1982.

Life is grim in Africa south of the Sahara, a region afflicted by persistent drought. The film shows the plight of women and children in this part of Africa and was made by Safi Faye, a Senegalese filmmaker.

Threescore and Then. 27 min., color, 1982.

An aspect of population affairs that is often overlooked is the growth of elderly people everywhere. This increase is especially dramatic in Asia, where the number of the elderly is expected to double by the year 2000. This film shows "senior citizens" living under a variety of circumstances in Thailand. We also view problems through the eyes of the aging.

The Transnationals. 27 min., color, 1978.

The global operations of corporations from western Europe and North America have raised many questions. This film takes a look at this controversy in Jamaica, Indonesia, Singapore and the United States.

The Treasure Within. 27 min., color, 1981.

The pre-Colombian civilizations of South America developed great skills in architecture, goldwork, pottery and textiles. This film shows how these cultural treasures are being restored and preserved in order to revitalize Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador and Peru.

Womenpower: The Hidden Asset. 17 min., color, 1975.

Women constitute more than half of most nations' human resources, and this film depicts their changing status in Sri Lanka. High school students in that country discuss their feelings about the new roles of women in their society.

Note: Most of these films are available with Arabic, French or Spanish sound tracks, as well as in English.

"There is no greater threat to women's health and family health than ignorance; and the best remedy for that is education."

Pan American Health
Organization,
1984

Chapter Four

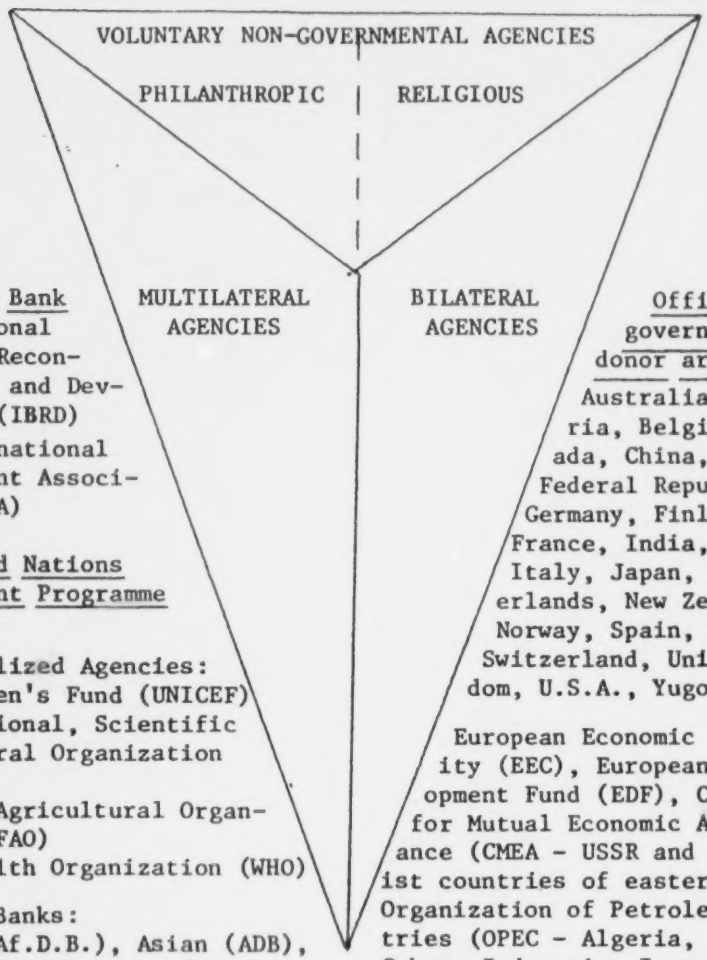
GETTING ACQUAINTED WITH INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT ORGANIZATIONS

Work in the broad field of education for international development is planned, implemented, evaluated and funded by agencies that can be classified as being one of three main types. A very important group of institutions that function in these areas of endeavor are multilateral in nature. In other words, their policies are made by specialists from more than one nation and their funds and personnel come from a variety of countries. Almost a fourth of the total expenditures for international development projects are from multilateral institutions. Much of this money, of course, isn't used to directly finance education, but the proportion of the total helps us to understand the importance of multilateral channels of development.

Another vital part of the spectrum of bodies that support international development work is the bilateral sector. It is comprised of the official governmental agencies of the donor and receiving nations. Agreements are made by the representatives of both governments, and these eventually constitute a global network. For example, the government of the United States will have aid and assistance agreements with several hundred other national governments in any given fiscal year. Similar bilateral arrangements are made between many other donor and client states, in the aggregate accounting for more than a half of all sums spent for international development.

Besides these two official tiers in the worldwide structure of education for international development, there is a third domain composed of non-governmental organizations (NGO's). It is estimated that there are at least 900 NGO's whose primary activity is Third World Development. If we include other voluntary, non-profit groups whose primary aims may be in the agricultural, economic, health or religious areas - but who also engage in projects that include development education - the number of relevant NGO's increases to 3000. Their resources are smaller than those of the multilateral or bilateral agencies, but NGO's still perform vital functions in the total international development effort.[1]

THE TRIANGLE OF ORGANIZATIONS
ACTIVE IN INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION


VOLUNTARY NON-GOVERNMENTAL AGENCIES
PHILANTHROPIC
RELIGIOUS
MULTILATERAL AGENCIES
BILATERAL AGENCIES
The World Bank
International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD)
The International Development Association (IDA)
The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)
UN Specialized Agencies:
UN Children's Fund (UNICEF)
UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)
Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO)
World Health Organization (WHO)
Regional Banks:
African (Af.D.B.), Asian (ADB), Caribbean Development Bank, Inter-American Development Bank (IDB)
Commonwealth Fund for Technical Cooperation (CFTC)
Official government donor arms.
Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, China, Denmark, Federal Republic of Germany, Finland, France, India, Ireland, Italy, Japan, The Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom, U.S.A., Yugoslavia.
European Economic Community (EEC), European Development Fund (EDF), Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (CMEA - USSR and socialist countries of eastern Europe), Organization of Petroleum Countries (OPEC - Algeria, Ecuador, Gabon, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, Libya, Nigeria, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Venezuela, United Arab Emirates).

Channels of Development Assistance

Most of the funds devoted to international development programs and projects come through three major types of assistance structures. These are multilateral agencies, national bodies of the governments of the donor countries, or non-governmental organizations (NGO's). We will briefly survey these three systems of international development aid before examining the specific types of organizations that work in the field of education for international development in greater detail.

Multilateral Institutions

The European Economic Community (EEC) administers its own international development aid budget, in addition to those of its member countries. For example, in 1980 and 1981, the EEC sums spent for development averaged $1,450 million. The money was made available under two different agreements. The first of these is the European Development Found (EDF), which is the institutional expression of each four year period of understandings made with African, Caribbean and Pacific nations (ACP), that contain one tenth of the total Third World population. Currently, the sums are expended under the Lomé Convention II, which runs from 1981 to 1985. Previously agreements were negotiated and signed at the Yaoundé and the Lomé Convention I (1976-1980). The other part of EEC development support goes to some Mediterranean nations, other states in Asia and Latin America that aren't in the ACP group, and food aid in order to meet emergencies.

Beginning in the 1970's another multilateral source of international development funds has been the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC). The origins of these grants, however, go back to 1967 when the Gulf States, Libya and Saudi Arabia made special grants to Egypt, Jordan and Syria to partly compensate them for their losses as a result of the war with Israel that year. Most OPEC assistance today, more than three quarters of it in fact, goes to other Arab countries. Refugees in Egypt, Jordan and Syria receive 43 per cent of these funds. The largest non-Arab recipients have been Pakistan (6%), Turkey (4%), and India (2%). The LDC's obtained about 12 per cent of OPEC's grants, and during the decade from 1971 to 1981 other low income nations received some 22 per cent. OPEC's funding of development functions especially in the context of the Conference of Islamic Nations, and the Organization of African Unity. In other words, it is designed to assist non-aligned states and help to direct the flow of OPEC's surplus income.

The Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (CMEA) is the multilateral channel of development assistance from the U.S.S.R. and the socialist nations of eastern Europe. In 1981, for instance, the net disbursements of CMEA amounted to $2129 million. Most of this assistance went to Afganistan, Kampuchea, Cuba, the Korean Peoples' Democratic Republic, Laos and Vietnam. Usually the funds were spent to procure and deliver goods and services from the donor to the recipient country. Sometimes low interest loans are involved, but a high portion of CMEA funding overseas is in the form of grants.

The United Nations system of multilateral institutions must be added to the organizations mentioned. Many of these arms were established after World War Two in order to make the international economic system more stable and orderly. Among them is the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD), often called the World Bank, established in 1945. Linked with it is the International Development Association (IDA), formed in 1962. One hundred forty-two countries belong to the World Bank, but its policies are largely determined by the representatives of a few affluent nations. For example, the Federal Republic of Germany, France, Japan, the United Kingdom and the United States control 44 per cent of the votes of the World Bank's Board of Directors.

The World Bank is not an aid agency at all. It makes assistance available through loans. IBRD's annual budget for 1982-1983 was $570 million. It has a professional staff of some 2,700. One of its biggest functions is providing technical assistance, which in 1982 accounted for over $1000 million of its loans. In the past most World Bank decisions were made in its headquarters, but now more are being made in the developing countries, themselves, through decentralization. Also, IBRD is recruiting more of its specialists from the Third World.

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) is another major vehicle of international assistance funded through annual voluntary contributions from many countries of the world. Starting in 1972, two five year global development cycles have been completed. Altogether, during this decade $5 billion was available to UNDP of which about 89 per cent was expended for field programs. The rest was used to meet administrative and support costs.

As will become clear when the many agencies are described, the United Nations also has many special purpose funds. A few examples of them are the United Nations Fund for Population Activities, The United Nations Volunteer Programme (UNV), and the Voluntary Fund for the UN Decade for Women. There is an

International Fund for Agricultural Development, which was founded in 1976 and began operating in 1978. Its acronym is IFAD, and it is specifically directed to focus on the plight of the world's rural poor. IFAD has a membership of 136 countries, but most of its funds come from western industrialized nations, or the twelve OPEC nations.

The World Food Programme (WFP) began in 1963 as a joint effort of the United Nations and the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO). It now delivers about a fourth of the total food aid being received in less developed countries, with much of its effort linked to specific projects. In recent years, it has handled about two million tons of food annually.

The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) started in 1946 to meet the needs of children who were suffering from malnutrition and deprivation. It works for children from birth to the age of fifteen to improve their environment, food and nutrition, health and education. In 1982 UNICEF will have provided a little more than $300 million of assistance to developing countries in order to provide rural sanitation, safe water supplies, primary health care, and formal schooling or non-formal learning opportunities to children.

Outside of the immediate United Nations system, but informally linked with it, is a group of regional banks. One of these is the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), established in 1960 as part of the "Alliance for Progress" which was conceived of at this time. It is related to the Organization of American States and has about $15 billion in capital, which in 1983 it was voted to double.

There is also a sixteen year old Asian Development Bank (ADB) with a subscribed capital of $8.4 billion. Its chief funders are Japan, the United States, Canada, France, Great Britain and Australia. ADB loans have gone to Korea, Indonesia, the Philippines, Thailand, Pakistan and Malaysia. Smaller loans were given to Bangladesh and Pakistan, Burma, Nepal and Sri Lanka.

The African Development Bank is the smallest of the regional funding institutions. Although it began in 1964, its major work got underway only after the African Development Fund was organized in 1972. Almost a third of the Af DB votes are controlled by three oil rich nations: Algeria, Libya and Nigeria. The other members number over forty countries, who are the recipients of its relatively much smaller capacity to make grants and loans.

There is also a Caribbean Development Bank with an annual budget of about $50 million. The major donor nations to this bank are Canada, the United Kingdom and the United States. It makes loans to the small, mainly island nations, located in the West Indies and related parts of Central and South America, such as Belize and Guyana.

Another multilateral organization that should be mentioned is the Commonwealth Fund for Technical Cooperation (CFTC). It is funded mainly by three affluent members of the British Commonwealth: Australia, Canada and the United Kingdom. It is primarily a technical assistance agency that funds relatively small development projects in less developed Commonwealth countries. Its total annual budget is around $30 million.

Bilateral Agencies

About twenty of the developed nations in the world have good sized aid and development assistance programs. China, India and Yugoslavia - although they are developing countries, themselves - also give sizeable amounts of overseas development assistance to other nations. The major contributing countries are:

Australia
Austria
Belgium
Canada
Denmark
Federal Republic of Germany
Finland
France
Italy
Japan
The Netherlands
New Zealand
Norway
Sweden
Switzerland
The United Kingdom
The United States of America

Ireland
Spain

The target of Official Development Assistance from these richer countries has been identified as 0.7 per cent of their gross national product. This figure was adopted by the Pearson Commission in 1969, which also recommended a 1% of GNP for all types of resources flows from the First to the Third World. Unfortunately, very few nations have met these goals, although the Brandt Commission suggested that the 0.7% target should be achieved by 1985, and the broader 1% figure be the aim for the year 2000. To give an example of the distance to be covered, in 1982 the United States' ODA/GNP ration was 0.27%. Some other countries reach about 0.48% and Sweden achieved 0.80%. It is thus clear that the targets are not beyond the capacity of First World nations.

Non-Governmental Organizations

Besides the official bodies we have been surveying to this point, we must recognize many voluntary and philanthropic organizations that contribute to the field of international development. In some cases, these are tax exempt foundations. Some of these groups are affiliated with religious communions. Others are independent, non-profit associations that are non-political and non-religious in nature. In many cases these compete for government grants, so they are not totally free of political influence. But there are other organizations that fund themselves completely from membership dues and voluntary contributions.

Non-governmental organizations frequently provide personnel and funding for projects in the less developed parts of the world. Usually they work in collaboration with indigenous agencies in the receiving country. Sometimes they are also operating bodies in their own right that maintain programs and institutions in the United States or overseas. These efforts, in some cases, go back a century or more; so education for international development under NGO auspices is at least as old as bilateral and multilateral channels of assistance. The sums expended are usually considerably less than those granted or loaned by official agencies. The NGO bodies, however, often are more deeply integrated with their constituencies in the Third World and more of their efforts are likely to be targeted on the most needy groups.

Let us now examine the specific functions of these three major types of international development organizations.

A Taxonomy of Educational Development Agencies

Previously, we have surveyed the multilateral, bilateral and non-governmental organizations that work in the area of education for international development. This classification on the basis of political affiliation and source of funding is often necessary to understand. There is an alternative method of identifying development agencies besides this structural arrangement. That is to look at them from the point of view of their functions.

It is important to be aware of the specific purposes of international development education organizations for four reasons. First, they are important vehicles that bring about many social changes. By knowing the immediate objectives and long-range goals for which they are working, it is possible to anticipate some of the directions of education over the coming decades. Second, in most cases these bodies command money and other material resources which they deploy in order to accomplish their functions. When the agendas of these agencies and our purposes as international development educators coincide, it may be possible for collaboration to occur. Third, these groups are sources of professional employment for development education specialists. If we want to have careers in this field they are the likely places to look for jobs. And fourth, in the planning and implementation of development projects, the priorities and perceptions of the experts who are associated with these organizations carry a lot of weight. It would be foolhardy to launch into some project or program uninformed about the current professional opinion and research evidence regarding the field that is involved.

This taxonomy of educational development agencies contains four major categories. There are (1) operating and funding organizations. As we have seen, some of them are international and national arms of government. Others are independent or religious voluntary service groups. Among these NGO's, many obtain sizeable portions of their budgets from official sources, so they may not be completely autonomous. On the other hand, they usually still can exercise considerable freedom of operation.

Second, (2) planning and coordinating centers exist to design and articulate projects and comprehensive programs that will be implemented by field workers. They are often staffed by agricultural economists, public health specialists, or social planners who specialize in either rural or urban revitalization.

Another functional focus of some organizations is (3) personnel training and preparation. This type of agency is assigned the responsibility of teaching knowledges, skills and understandings that individuals who wish to carry out development efforts need to have. The last major variety of development organizations is (4) advocacy, information clearhouses, and lobbying groups. Their staff will draw up policy position papers. They compile and disseminate data about development issues. And individuals from these agencies will represent their clients before governmental bodies or in the courts in order to assist them to obtain justice.

A FUNCTIONAL TAXONOMY OF DEVELOPMENT AGENCIES

OPERATING AND FUNDING	PREPARATION AND TRAINING
PLANNING AND COORDINATING	ADVOCACY, CLEARINGHOUSE, LOBBYING

Of course, these specific functions are not always neatly separated. Some development organizations are active in more than one of these areas. It is helpful, nevertheless, to be able to recognize which groups stress each of these primary spheres of activity.

OPERATING AND FUNDING ORGANIZATIONS

International

Arab Organization for Agricultural Development, 4 El Gama'a Avenue, P.O. Box 474, Khartoum, Sudan

Commonwealth Development Corporation (CDC), 33 Hill Street, London W1A 3A2 England, United Kingdom

This is a statutory body of the United Kingdom government that undertakes, alone or in association with other agencies, projects to assist Third World development. It functions in the independent nations that belong to the British Commonwealth and, with special approval, also in a few non-Commonwealth countries. Currently CDC has projects in about forty nations.

International Institute for Economic Development, International Islamic Organization, J-1 Let Jen S Parman No. 66, Slipi Raya, Jakarta, Indonesia

This multilateral agency for development was established at the Bandang Conference in 1970.

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), 2 rue André Pascal, F-75775, Paris CENEX 16, France

OECD was formed in 1961 to promote economic and social welfare in the western European Common Market region. It is also designed to stimulate and harmonize the aid efforts of all its member countries to developing nations. OECD issues annual reports, economic surveys by country, The OECD Observer (bi-monthly), and Economic Outlook (semi-annual). Copies of these documents can be obtained from the "Government Publications" sections of research libraries.

United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), 866 United Nations Plaza, New York, N.Y. 10017

UNDP works with 150 developing nations and territories to increase their outputs of food, fuel, raw materials, industrial products and essential consumer goods. It assists the expansion of employment, housing, health care, education, vocational training, administrative and public services, trade, transportation, and communications. The aim of UNDP is a more widespread and equitable sharing of all the benefits of progress.

UNDP draws upon the thirty-five international agencies that comprise the United Nations system. Most of its development projects are carried out in the field by these specialized bodies, either singly or in multi-disciplinary teams. Its projects are of four types: (1) surveys and feasibility studies, (2) basic and applied research, (3) professional and vocational training, and (4) development planning for the economic and social sectors of societies.

The United Nations agencies that are most involved with education for international development are:

International Labor Organization (ILO), 4 route de Morillons, CH-1211, Geneva 22, Switzerland

ILO aims to promote productive employment, improve labor conditions and raise the standards of living.

Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO), Viale delle Terme di Caracalla, 00100 Rome, Italy

FAO especially directs its efforts toward improving the conditions for rural people. It aims to develop better nutrition, marketing and distribution of crops. Among its objectives are increased production from farms, fisheries and forests. FAO issues the bimonthly Development Education Exchange Papers (DEEP) which contain indispensible information about selected materials produced by a global network of groups, institutions, and government or non-governmental bodies engaged in development work. The Ideas and Action Bulletin is also a bimonthly publication of FAO, in this case issued by the Freedom from Hunger Campaign/Action for Development. It presents short descriptive articles about development projects and activities in many nations. A third valuable FAO publication is Ceres: Review on Agriculture and Development, also a bimonthly. It contains longer and more scholarly articles on development issues.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), 9 Place de Fontenoy, 75700 Paris, France

Founded in 1946, UNESCO is charged in the UN Charter to, "contribute to peace and security in the world by promoting collaboration among nations through education,

science and culture in order to further universal respect for justice, for the rule of law, and for the human rights and fundamental freedoms which are affirmed for the people of the world, without distinction of race, sex, language or religion." The work of UNESCO includes advancing mutual knowledge and understanding through mass communication, popular education, spreading an appreciation of culture, and teaching science. Specific projects include literacy drives, teaching about human rights, working to raise educational standards, and technical or personnel exchanges. The UNESCO Courier is a monthly journal issued by this organization that frequently contains in-depth articles on development topics.

United Nations Fund for Population Activities (UNFPA)

Begun in 1967, the UNFPA now contributes to some 900 projects in more than ninety countries. Its funds are derived from voluntary gifts from governments and private sources. Among its projects are the introduction of family planning education, the promotion of population training programs, preparing rural community workers, and the analysis of demographic data. A World Population Plan of Action was adopted in 1974 which sets forth the goals of UNFPA such as reducing infant mortality, reducing birth rates in societies that are threatened by exponential population growth, and assisting people everywhere to be able to decide freely about the number and spacing of their children on the basis of respect for human life.

United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), Headquarters, U.N., New York, N.Y. 10017. There are also ten regional offices of UNICEF, and national UNICEF committees in thirty-seven countries.

Established in 1946, UNICEF provides assistance in fields such as education, health, nutrition, social welfare and vocational training. It often provides equipment and supplies for projects in Third World countries, as well as training stipends and funding for national training schemes. UNICEF News is issued four times a year, and gives photographs and write-ups of many problems affecting children and the efforts being made to solve them.

Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)

Since 1951 the UNHCR has offered legal assistance and material aid to refugees. It plans and helps to finance rural settlements for them, and provides education and training aimed at equipping the refugees to become self-supporting. UNHCR headquarters are in Geneva, and there are forty field offices of the agency.

World Bank (International Bank for Reconstruction and Development - IBRD), Headquarters, 1818 H Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20433

The World Bank was formed on December 27, 1945. It makes loans for development projects to its member countries, to their political subdivisions, or to private business enterprises located in their territories. The World Bank also provides a wide range of technical assistance services to member countries. This agency issues an annual World Bank Atlas of population, per capita product and growth rates; as well as many other reports and publications.

Agencies of National Governments

These are some sample development organizations of various nations.

Australian Development Assistance Agency (ADAA), P.O. Box 887, Canberra, ACT 2601, Australia

ADAA was established in 1974 to administer Australia's official overseas aid program.

Austrian Institute for Development Aid and Technical Cooperation with Developing Countries, Grillparzerstrass 14, Wien 1, Austria

Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), 122 Bank Street, Ottawa K1A OG4 Canada

CIDA is the official arm of the Canadian government formed in 1968 to carry out the work of the External Aid Office. It publishes a bimonthly newsmagazine on international development called Development Directions.

Netherlands Universities Foundation for International Co-operation (NUFFIC), Badhuisweg 251, The Hague, The Netherlands

NUFFIC provides training programs in the Netherlands and funds projects overseas.

Swedish Agency for Research Cooperation with Developing Countries (SAREC), S-105 25 Stockholm, Sweden

SAREC finances and conducts studies on development programs, facilitates technological transfer, and helps to strengthen the development research capacities of Third World nations. This agency issues a series entitled SAREC Reports which present the evidence and findings of various studies that it has initiated.

United States Agency for International Development (USAID), 21st and Virginia Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20523

This is the official American federal agency for funding and carrying out various development programs overseas. USAID publishes a monthly journal called Horizons which is distributed free to professionals in the field of international development. Development projects are described, new publications reviewed, and there is an international calendar of development conferences and workshops.

Independent

Basle Foundation for Aid to Developing Countries, c/o CIBA-GEIGY AG CH-4000, Basel, Switzerland

This body was established by a pharmaceutical firm to assist developing countries especially with health, medical practice and research, and social welfare projects.

Canadian Council for International Cooperation, 321 Chapel Street, Ottawa, Ontario K1M 7Z2 Canada

CCIC coordinates the services and programs of other voluntary agencies in Canada. It issues a Newsletter.

Centre for Educational Development Overseas (CEDO), Tavistock House South, Tavistock Square, London WC1H 9L1 England, United Kingdom

CEDO was started in 1970 and is concerned with carrying out international programs with British Commonwealth countries and some other Third World nations in Latin America and the Middle East.

Development Group for Alternative Policies, 1010 Vermont Avenue, N.W., Suite 521, Washington, D.C. 20005

This organization sponsors self-development efforts in the Third World and the United States.

Euro Action (ACORD), Prins Hendrikkade 48, Amsterdam, The Netherlands

ACORD was organized in 1972 in order to pool the resources and expertise of non-governmental organizations in Europe for development projects. It coordinates education, fund raising, planning and program management. The goal is to strengthen the capabilities of indigenous groups in Third World countries. ACORD now has projects in Cape Verde, Guinea Bissau, Mali, Niger, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Tanzania and Upper Volta.

Foundation NOVIB (The Netherlands Organization for International Development Cooperation), Van Blankenburgstraat 6, Den Haag, The Netherlands

NOVIB began in 1956 in order to secure many-sided aid for projects in developing countries. Among these are educational and medical work, as well as extensive technical assistance.

Heifer Project International, Inc. (HPI), P.O. Box 808, 825 West Third Street, Little Rock, ARK 72203

HPI is a non-sectarian self-help organization that sends livestock, poultry, technical aid and related agricultural assistance directly to poor people in the developing areas of the world. It publishes Sharing Life, a quarterly newsletter.

Humanistic Institute for Cooperation with Developing Countries (HIVOS Foundation), Huygenspark 37, Den Haag, The Netherlands

HIVOS is a non-profit, private Dutch organization that advises and funds projects that function at the grass roots level through indigenous development organizations in Third World countries.

Humanistic Institute for Cooperation with Developing Countries, International Humanistic Ethical Union, Oudegracht 152, NL-3511 A2, Utrecht, The Netherlands

This is the development arm of the IHEU working in Africa, Asia and Latin America. It carries out projects in education, human rights, mental health, obtaining equal opportunities for women and ending racism.

Joint Africa Board, 25 Victoria Street, London SW1H OEX England, United Kingdom

Agricultural, commercial and industrial development in Central and East Africa has been promoted by this body since 1923.

International Human Assistance Programs (IHAP), 360 Park Avenue, South, New York, N.Y. 10010

IHAP tries to raise the living standards of impoverished people in developing countries with innovative self-help programs. The fields in which its work focuses are: environmental sanitation, community leadership, health care, family planning, nutrition and vocational training. IHAP publishes a quarterly newsletter and issues annual reports. Originally it was named the American-Korean Foundation.

Oxfam-America, 115 Broadway, Boston, MA 02116

Oxfam is an independent development and disaster assistance organization that is part of a worldwide network of the same name that had its origins in Great Britain in 1943. It makes agricultural, educational and medical grants to indigenous, local groups in Africa, Asia and Latin America. Oxfam issues annual reports and other publications.

Partnership in Productivity Foundation (PPF), 2441 Eighteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009

PPF aims to contribute to human and economic development in the Third World. Its aim is to increase human productivity through entrepreneural efforts. Its projects are designed to assist poor people to compete in free enterprise systems located in the underdeveloped areas. PPF offers both technical assistance and investment loans. Currently its programs are located in Botswana, Dominica, Haiti, Kenya, Liberia, Malawi and Upper Volta. PPF publishes a quarterly newsletter, and annual report, brochures and books.

Partners of the Americas, Inter-American Center for Community Education, 2001 S. Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009

The Partners is a private, tax-exempt national and international organization that began in connection with the Alliance for Progress. It provides backing and liaison for people-to-people development projects between "partner" states in the Caribbean and Latin America, and the United

States. For example, Connecticut's partner is the State of Paraiba in northeastern Brazil and a number of joint educational development projects have been undertaken. The Inter-American Center for Community Education has been funded by the Charles E. Mott Foundation to plan and initiate community development education activities in the partnerships.

Volunteers for International Development (VID), Box 4543, Stanford, CA 94305

Volunteers in Technical Assistance (VITA), 3706 Rhode Island Ave., Mt. Rainier, MD 20822

VITA is a large private organization that gives technical help to groups and institutions that are working for economic and social development. It works overseas to expand local abilities to determine, adopt and implement technologies that will be appropriate to the local situation. This organization supports long-range development research as well as specific self-help projects. VITA has a library of over 75,000 books and documents on small and medium scale technologies. It publishes VITA News quarterly and puts out an annual report. Many technical abstracts and handbooks for international development workers are also issued.

World Education (WE), 210 Lincoln Street, Boston, MA 02111

WE gives assistance in designing and implementing informal programs of adult education in the Third World. Its work is based on the belief that learning is most effective when it addresses vital daily concerns. It aims to meet the priority needs of the learners, focussing especially on improved agricultural practices, family planning, functional literacy, health and nutrition. These programs began at Literacy House, Luchnow, India and WE has since prepared more than 10,000 facilitators, teachers and trainers. Formerly called World Literacy, Inc., WE publishes World Education Reports, a monograph series and training manuals.

World Neighbors (WN), 5116 North Portland Avenue, Oklahoma City, OK 73112

WN sponsors community development projects in areas such as basic education, food production, family planning, public health and village industries. It works in twenty countries of Africa, Asia and Latin America. WN prepares literature and has speakers, films and filmstrips on "self-help" topics. It issues a quarterly World Neighbors Newsletter and annual reports.

Religiously Affiliated

American Friends Service Committee (AFSC), 1501 Cherry Street, Philadelphia, PA 19102

Related to the Religious Society of Friends but staffed and supported by people of many persuasions, AFSC works in seventeen countries to provide refugee relief, education about nonviolent methods of change, and rehabilitation. Three issues of the Quaker Service Bulletin are published each year, and there is an annual report, program literature and booklets.

Canadian Catholic Organization for Development and Peace (CCODP), 1452 Drummond Street, Montreal 107, Quebec, Canada

CCODP was formed in 1967 and now operates cooperative programs in forty-five countries.

Christian Action for Development in the Caribbean (CADEC), 14 South Avenue, P.O. Box 527, Kingston, Jamaica

CADEC is a Commission of the Caribbean Conference of Churches established in 1969. It plans and initiates development projects in all of its member churches located in Caribbean nations.

Dominique Pire Foundation, 35, rue du Marché, B-5200, Huy, Belgium

Founded in 1959 to give aid to the poor in developing countries and to promote understanding among peoples, the motto of this organization is "The Heart Open to the World." It plans and funds projects, and awards the Dominique Pire International Prize for outstanding international aid programs. A bimonthly news bulletin is sent out.

Maryknoll (The Catholic Foreign Mission Society of America, Inc.) Maryknoll, N.Y. 10545

Established in 1911, Maryknoll missioners do church work and provide educational, medical and social services around the world. A Maryknoll Center for Justice Concerns (MCJC), 50 Dunster Road, Chestnut Hill, MA 02167 seeks to increase awareness of the Third World poor and their problems. It designs college curricula in this area and plans adult education programs for local parishes. Stress is placed on world hunger, human rights, social justice, the evils of the arms race, and the role of transnational corporations in hindering vital development overseas. Maryknoll is a monthly journal and there are also occasional newsletters.

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PLANNING, COORDINATING AND RESEARCH CENTERS

African Women's Development Task Force, African Training and Research Centre for Women, ECAFE, P.O. Box 3001, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

This Center organizes and coordinates a volunteer corps of African women who have relevant skills and experiences to share with others in Africa who need them.

Agricultural Cooperative Development International (ACDI), 1021 14th Street, N.W., Suite 201, Washington, D.C. 20005

ACDI links national cooperative federations overseas and regional cooperatives in the United States, usually under a contract with the U.S. Agency for International Development (AID). It assists in organizing and providing technical assistance to cooperatives in developing countries. Allied with ACDI is a technical research arm. ACDI issues monthly news bulletins, and a bimonthly News for Cooperative Specialists. There is an annual report and occasional brochures.

Agricultural Development Council (ADC), 1290 Avenue of the Americas, New York, N.Y. 10019

ADC is a foundation that supports research and teaching in the social sciences related to agricultural development. It also funds pilot research programs and inter-regional projects in Asia. ADC publishes an annual newsletter, a Directory of Fellows every three years, ADC Papers and ADC Reprints.

Asian Development Center (ADC), Eleventh Floor, Philbanking Corporation Building, Anda Circle, Port Area, Manila, Philippines

This ADC was founded in 1969 in order to serve legislative bodies of its member Asian countries as an instrument for coordinating their development efforts. It conducts studies, recommends policies, and assists with program planning. ADC issues an annual report, as well as briefing papers that are circulated to its members.

Asian Programme for Educational Innovation for Development (APEID) 920 Sukhumvit Road, Central P.O. Box 1425, Bangkok, Thailand

Established in 1973 and related to UNESCO, this body aims to promote the concept of development as an overall, multidimensionaland diversified process. In its view, development must be endogenous in nature, based on the values that are peculiar to each society, and must involve active local participation. The governments of eighteen countries belong to APEID.

Center for Development Policy (CDP), 418 Tenth Street, S.E., Washington, D.C. 20002

CDP monitors the use of foreign aid. It issues independent analyses to government officials, the press, and public groups.

Center for Development Research (CDR), Ewaldsgade 7-9, DK 2200, Copenhagen N, Denmark

CDR was established in 1969 to gather documentation and keep abreast of current research about development. It also assists with implementing research projects in the international development field. CDR publishes Den Ny Verden quarterly in Danish, as well as annual reports and special bibliographies.

Center for Development Research (Sentrum for Utviklingsforskning) Herman Fossgate 9, P.O. Box 1046, N-5001 Bergen, Norway

Centre for the Study of Developing Societies (CSDS), 29 Rajpur Road, Delhi, India 110054

CSDS was inaugurated in 1963 to conduct analytic, normative and policy oriented studies regarding the stresses and challenges facing Third World societies.

Committee on Science and Technology in Developing Countries (COSTED), Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, India 560012

COSTED was organized in 1966 to coordinate and encourage the efforts of international scientific unions to assist the developing countries by providing them with liaison and advisory services on science and technology. It has NGO status with the United Nations, twenty-seven national members, and individual scholars who are members in Argentina, Egypt, Ghana, Hungary, India, Japan, the United Kingdom, the United States, and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

Education and Development, International Research and Training Institute (IRFED), 49 rue de la Glaciere, F-75013, Paris, France

IRFED was begun in 1958 and reorganized with its current name in 1972. It brings together development workers, educators and researchers in order to seek original solutions to problems within specific contexts and situations. IRFED advocates integrated approaches to global development problems.

Information and Development, 40 Avenue Michel-Ange, B-1050, Brussels, Belgium

This organization was established in 1973 to be a center for obtaining data about development in the Third World. It is a membership organization for individuals.

Institute of Development Studies, 24 rue Rothschild, CH-1202, Geneva, Switzerland

Originally this organization was concerned only with development issues in Africa, but it now has a global focus. Begun in 1961, it took its present name in 1971. It is a research and teaching institution - it does not operate projects overseas.

Institute for Local Self-Reliance, 1717 Eighteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009

This organization helps cities and neighborhoods put to work underused or unused resources in order to benefit the local economy. It sponsors solar energy, waste utilization and community economic development projects. A journal, Self-Reliance, is published.

Institute for the Study of Developing Nations (ISDN), P.O. Box 163, Franklin D. Roosevelt Station, New York, N.Y. 10022

ISDN was established in 1972 and has a primarily North American membership.

International Association of Science and Technology for Development (IASTED), 3356 Varna Crescent, Calgary T3A OE6 Alberta, Canada

International Board of Cooperation for the Developing Countries, C Conte, Piazza San Andrea della Valle 6, 1-00100 Rome, Italy

International Center of Methodology for Future and Development Studies (ICMFDS), 3-5 Mihail Moxa St., Bucharest 7000, Romania

Since 1970 ICMFDS has conducted research projects, held courses, sponsored an international summer school, and organized conferences on development issues. It publishes the ICMFDS Newsletter quarterly and issues reports.

International Council for Education Development (ICED), 680 Fifth Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10019

ICED was formed by James A Perkins, a former President of Cornell University, and others to identify and analyze educational problems that are shared by a number of countries, make policy recommendations, and provide consultation to national and international organizations. ICED has an office at P.O. Box 217, Essex, CT 06426 where Dr. Philip H. Coombs conducts studies. It issues a newsletter, publications on education and rural development, and occasional papers.

International Development Centre (CID), Servette 93, Geneva, Switzerland

CID was founded in 1964.

International Development Conference, 1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036

This body was founded in 1951 as the U.S. National Conference on International Economic and Social Development.

International Development Research Centre (IDRC), Box 8500, Ottawa K1G 3H9 Canada

International Educational Development, 34 West 33rd Street, New York, N.Y. 10001

International Foundation for Development Alternatives (IFDA), 2 Place du Marché, CH 1260, Nyon, Switzerland

This is a Swiss non-profit foundation established in 1976 to provide analytic and technical services for development alternatives. These are to aim at satisfying both material and non-material aspirations and needs both in industrialized societies and the Third World. It functions on a project basis, using ad hoc teams made up from among its network members.

International Society for Community Development (ISCD), 345 East 46th Street, New York, N.Y. 10017

ISCD was formed in 1962 at Rio de Janeiro and now has members in forty-four countries. It aims to advance the understanding and application of community development principles and practices for educational and scientific purposes. ISCD issues the Community Development Journal.

Overseas Development Council (ODC), 1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036

The aim of ODC is to increase American understanding of the economic and social problems that the developing countries are confronting. It works to resolve these issues and to keep the urgency of funding and participating in constructive development projects before the public. ODC publishes books and monographs, and issues communiques and development papers.

Society for Applied Learning Technology (SALT), 50 Culpepper Street, Warrenton, VA 22186

SALT is a membership group composed of senior executives from academic, industrial and military organizations that design and manufacture training technologies. Among these are computer assisted instruction, simulators, media delivery systems and job performance aids. It aims at assuring that there will be adequate skills with understanding of, and effective management of, all of the new technologies in the Third World. SALT publishes conference proceedings and the quarterly Journal of Educational Technology Systems.

Society for Intercultural Education, Training and Research (SIETAR), 1414 Twenty-second Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20037

SIETAR is a membership organization for people who engage in intercultural communication such as educators, professionals in public and private agencies, research scholars, and management trainers. It aims to increase cooperation and understanding among people of differing and sometimes conflicting perspectives who ought to collaborate across disciplinary, ethnic, racial and professional boundaries. Information is disseminated and exchanged and SIETAR provides a reference service. It publishes a quarterly newsletter, Communique, the quarterly International Journal of Intercultural Relations, as well as bibliographies, conference proceedings, handbooks and five volumes of Readings in Intercultural Communication.

Society for International Development (SID), 1346 Connecticut Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036

SID is made up of administrators, economists, educators, engineers, health specialists, lawyers and technicians who

are concerned with encouraging economic and social advances along with technological progress in the less developed countries. Established in 1957 in order to encourage international action for development, SID now has some 6,000 members in 135 nations and over 200 institutional members. Its chapters function in thirty-eight countries. SID issues the quarterly International Development Review, a bimonthly Survey of International Development, a quarterly newsletter, conference proceedings, and a membership directory. The European office of SID is Palazzo Civilta del Lavoro, EUR I-00144, Rome, Italy.

Technoserve, Inc., 209 Greenwich Avenue, P.O. Box 409, Greenwich, CT 06830

Technoserve was founded in 1969 in order to assist people in developing countries who want to start or expand locally owned self-help projects that will directly benefit their own communities. It is a non-profit, private corporation that is governed by a Board of Directors and funded from income from churches, corporations, foundations, individuals, and USAID.

UNIVERSITY RELATED CENTERS AND PROGRAMS

This is a selected listing of the more educationally related agencies.

Center for Developmental Change, Patterson Office Tower, University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY 40506 (606) 257-2681

Center for International Education, School of Education, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, MA 01003 (413) 545-0465

An extensive program of graduate courses and seminars related to education for international development is offered by this Center. It has carried out projects in Third World countries, and also in disadvantaged parts of the United States. It issues conference proceedings, manuals and monographs.

Center for Studies in Education and Development, Gutman Library, Room 413, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA 02138 (617) 495-3553

This Center provides graduate level courses and seminars, has carried out development projects overseas, and issues reports and other publications.

Institute of International Relations for Advanced Studies on Peace and Development in Asia, Sophia University, 7 Kioi-cho Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo 102, Japan

Founded in 1969, this is a teaching and research arm of the Jesuit University in Japan.

Institute of International Studies, Teachers College, Columbia University, 525 West 120th Street, New York, N.Y. 10027 (212) 870-4121

Associated with this coordinating Institute are several specialized area Centers in which development projects in Africa, Asia and Latin America are studied, and in some cases, initiated. Reports and project descriptions are issued.

Institute for International Studies in Education, 513 Erickson Hall, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI 48823 (517) 355-5522

IISE is a university based organization for instruction and research in international development education. It has undertaken many contracts to operate projects overseas and issues a series of bibliographies and reports.

Institute of Public Service, International (IPS), The University of Connecticut, 1380 Asylum Avenue, Hartford, CT 06105 (203) 486-2828

IPS is an educational service agency of Connecticut's public research university established in 1944. Since 1961 IPS has been concerned with improving public services in Third World countries by offering training and development programs for indigenous administrators and managers, and by doing consulting overseas. It's programs are usually short-term and non-degree. IPS has published Highlights of Human Resource Development, a training and management manual, Three-Tier Strategy: A Family Planning Manpower Development Approach for the LDC's, and An Overview of Training Strategies for Programs for the Personal and Professional Growth of Women in Less Developed Countries.

International and Development Education Program, 165 Social Science Building, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA 15260 (412) 624-5574

Graduate programs of studies and advanced degrees are provided for American and international students by this arm of the School of Education. It also conducts research and has operated some funded projects overseas.

Inter-University Centre for Andean Development (CINDA), Avenida Francisco Bilvao 2626, Santiago, Chile

Since 1971 CINDA has coordinated the efforts to contribute to cultural, economic and social development being made by state and independent universities in Chile, Colombia, Ecuador and Peru.

Regional Institute of Higher Education and Development (RIHED), 15, Grange Road, Singapore 0923, Republic of Singapore
Tel: 7344405/7

RIHED was opened in 1970 to facilitate cooperation among the various Southeast Asian governments and universities. Its objective is to increase the contribution being made by the institutions of higher learning in the area to economic and social development in each country and in the region as a whole. A quarterly RIHED Bulletin is issued containing articles, news of development activities, reviews of new RIHED publications, and clippings from the press.

Research Institute for Developing Countries, Central School of Planning and Statistics, Warszawa, Poland

This institute deals with problems of socio-economic development in Africa, Asia and Latin America. Topics such as planning economic development projects and improving the trade relations among developing countries are dealt with.

School for International Training, Kipling Road, Brattleboro, VT 05301 (802) 257-7751

Although not affiliated with a university, the School for International Training offers a Master of Arts in Teaching and prepares educators for careers overseas. It began in 1964 as part of the Experiment in International Living with which it is still linked. The School publishes Odyssey, a quarterly newsletter, and brochures describing its programs.

Stanford International Development Education Committee, School of Education, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305
(415) 497-4644

This organization gives graduate level instruction about education for international development, has carried out a number of funded projects overseas, and issues reports of their work.

The I.N. Thut World Education Center (TWEC), Box U-32, School of Education, The University of Connecticut, Storrs, CT 06268 (203) 486-3321

TWEC was begun as the World Education Project (WEP) in 1971 to work in the interrelated areas of bilingual, multicultural, international and global education. It has a "world externs" program, issues publications, does curriculum development, has a large documentary collection, and offers graduate and undergraduate instruction. TWEC cooperates with development education projects in Brazil, Nepal and Turkey. It issues an occasional newsletter, TWEC Communique, brochures, a publications list, and annual reports.

The United Nations University, Toho Seimei Building, 15-1 Shibuya 2-chome, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo 150, Japan Tel: (03) 499-2811

This official higher education arm of the UN undertakes research assignments worldwide. It issues a monthly UNU Newsletter, and specialized journals such as Mountain Research and Development.

PERSONNEL TRAINING AND PREPARATION AGENCIES

American Society for Training and Development (ASTD), P.O. Box 5307, Madison, WI 53705 (608) 274-3440

ASTD is a non-profit educational agency of people who train and develop personnel for business, education, government and industry. It operates an inquiry service, Operation Talent Match, conducts research in its field and compiles statistics. ASTD is active in affirmative action and national development policy issues. It publishes National Report twenty times a year and also issues a monthly journal.

Asian and Pacific Centre for Women and Development, UNDP Office, United Nations Building, P.O. Box 1555, Teheran, Iran

This Center was established in 1977 as the research and training institute for women working in development fields of the United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. It has probably now been relocated.

Community Training and Development (CTD), 41 South Main Street, Fond du Lac, WI 54935 (414) 921-0225

CTD brings resources to bear in preparing community advocates and neighborhood workers who will take part in the "War on Poverty." The organization also trains people to give counsel regarding alcohol and drug abuse, and prepares specialists for the fields of aging, health and human resources development. CTD publishes a newsletter, annual report and training manuals.

Institute for the Development of Agricultural Cooperation in Asia (IDACA), No. 24-9, 6-chrome, Funabashi, Setagayaku, Tokyo, Japan

IDACA was established in 1963 in order to give education and training to people who are going to have leadership roles in the agricultural cooperatives of developing Asian countries.

International Association for Training, Education and Development (TED), Gottlieb Duttweiler Institute for Economic and Social Studies of World Development, CH-8803, RÜschlikon - Zurich, Switzerland

Pan-African Institute for Development (PAID), 3 rue de Varembé, CH 1202, Geneve, Switzerland

PAID was established in 1964 in order to assist with cultural, economic and social development in Africa by preparing Africans who are capable of giving leadership in their own societies so that local living standards can be improved. It trains officials, hosts technical seminars, and offers consultation on the planning and implementation of development projects.

Research Centre for Socio-Economic Development, Av. 27 de Febrero, 1905, piso 5, 'A', Casilla Correo 631, 2000 Rosario, Argentina

This Center was founded in 1961 to engage in research and study projects concerning the means of contributing to economic and social development in Latin America. It gives special training programs on human relations, public policy making, and the management of development programs.

ADVOCACY, INFORMATION CLEARINGHOUSES, AND LOBBYING GROUPS

Action for Development (FFH/AD), FAO, Via delle Terme di Caracalla, 1-00100 Rome, Italy

Begun in 1960 as the Freedom from Hunger Campaign, FFH/AD tries to stimulate a critical awareness of the basic global development issues. It works to get the participation of local people in promoting development education and action for self-reliance. Seven issues of Ideas and Action come out each year, and the Development Education Exchange Papers are a bimonthly publication.

Asian Cultural Forum on Development (ACFOD), 501 South Main Street, Normal, IL 61761 (309) 452-5046

This organization is composed of concerned individuals and agricultural, labor and religious groups working to forward the cause of integral human development in Asia. ACFOD promotes international understanding of Asian conditions, and studies the effects of United States economic and political policies on Asians. Asian Action, booklets and pamphlets are published.

Association for the Advancement of Appropriate Technology for Developing Countries (IAAATDC), University of Michigan, 603 East Madison Street, Ann Arbor, MI 48109 (313) 764-6410

IAAATDC helps students, scholars and development practitioners deal with their problems concerning science, technology and technological transfer in both developed and developing countries. Its aim is to encourage critical thinking and the systematic application of technologies that are well suited to the specific development conditions, needs, problems and goals. This agency publishes Approtech, a quarterly journal, a directory of its members, and the proceedings of symposia and workshops that it sponsors.

Association of Third World Affairs (ATWA), 2011 Kalorama Road, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009 (202) 265-7929

ATWA works to promote cooperation among Americans and local groups in developing countries. It publishes Third World Forum bimonthly, and occasional monographs.

Black Economic Development Conference, 475 Riverside Drive, Room 349, New York, N.Y. 10115

Center for Development Policy (CDP), 418 Tenth Street, S.E., Washington, D.C. 20003 (202) 547-6406

CDP is a public interest group that monitors the flows of funds from bilateral and multilateral institutions such as AID and the World Bank to the Third World. It aims to prevent exporting hazardous nuclear energy reactors or transferring products and technologies that could be dangerous to human health and safety. It publishes two quarterly journals, Development Finance and Development Monitor.

Coalition for Women in International Development (CWID), Overseas Education Fund, 2101 L Street, N.W., Suite 916, Washington, D.C. 20037 (202) 466-3430

CWID brings together individuals and organizations that seek to promote the participation of women in international policy formation, and in the economic, political and social development of their respective countries.

Development Education Centre, 121 Avenue Road, Toronto, Ontario, Canada (416) 964-6560

This is a resource agency that produces slide shows, books, pamphlets and other media about international development issues.

GATT-FLY, 11 Madison Avenue, Toronto, Ontario M5R 2S2 Canada (416) 921-4615

GATT-FLY is an education, research and political action organization that tries to assist groups that are struggling for social justice. It issues reports and research papers.

Institute for Food and Development Policy (FOOD FIRST), 1885 Mission Street, San Francisco, CA 94103 (415) 864-8555

This is an advocacy and information group that produces a grade school level curriculum, comic books on hunger issues, articles, books and pamphlets.

International Coalition for Development Action (ICDA), 11 Sheffield Terrace, London W8 7NG England, United Kingdom

A network of local, autonomous development groups in the relatively rich countries has been organized to coordinate their efforts to establish the New International Economic Order (NIEO). The coalition was formed in Geneva, Switzerland in 1975.

International Development Action (IDA), 73 Little George Street, Fitzroy VIC 3065, Australia

IDA was begun in 1970 in order to promote interest in the concept of development, especially in Third World countries. It especially provides speakers and information to student groups.

International Women's Tribune Center (IWTC), 305 East 46th Street, Sixth Floor, New York, N.Y. 10017 (212) 421-5633

This is a support organization for women around the world who get involved in development projects, such as women and food, health, non-formal education and politics. It is a clearinghouse for information in all of these fields. IWTC publishes a quarterly, the Tribune, and materials such as Asia and Pacific Centre for Women and Development Resource Book, The Caribbean Resource Book, Focussing on Women in Development, and an Information Kit for Women in Africa.

National Catholic Rural Life Conference, 4625 N. W. Beaver Drive, Des Moines, IA 50322 (515) 270-2634

As an agency of the Roman Catholic Church, this organization tries to help bring justice to rural and urban people through advocacy, education, prayer vigils and public witness. It issues Catholic Rural Life, and Rural Life Page which reprints articles on rural development issues from local newspapers.

Trans-national Network of Appropriate/Alternative Technology (TRANET), P.O. Box 567, Rangeley, ME 04970 (207) 864-2252

People who are concerned about identifying and utilizing alternative technologies that will be more appropriate to the needs and resources of Third World countries can work with this voluntary organization. It aims to develop and apply basic technologies that are geared to local conditions and will best meet the needs of developing societies. It organizes some bilateral exchanges and puts out a quarterly newsletter and directory of its membership.

CHAPTER FOUR

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Most agencies and organizations working in the field of international development education issue annual reports. Copies of some of them can be obtained by corresponding with representatives of these groups. The annual reports can then be analyzed to ascertain the general stated philosophy of the organization, its policies, and the types of projects and programs that it undertakes. It may also be possible to draw some limited comparisons among agencies that do similar types of work in order to find out what their cost/benefit ratios are.

2. Some of the agencies and organizations described in Chapter Four provide booklets, brochures, or other media to the public that are designed to acquaint potential contributors with their work. A great deal can be learned about how these groups operate by studying samples of these items.

3. A few of the international development education organizations are physically located in Connecticut, southern New England, or New York City. One of the best ways to learn about them is to arrange for a field visit to their headquarters as a participant/observer.

4. It may be possible to interview an informant who either works or has worked for an international development education agency, or somebody who has been directly involved in a program or project that one of these groups sponsored. This type of conversation can be very insightful.

"Who, claiming to be a human being, can just stand there, doing nothing, in the face of growing global hunger, desertification, epidemics, heeding that cynical advice, 'Don't do something: just stand there!'

No, we have no choice: we must act, impelled and compelled by ineluctable concern for our fellow-humans, as if planning were indeed possible. And the amazing thing is not that so often plans miscarry, that occasionally they do perhaps make bad matters even worse, but that so often they do lead to significant improvements - even if in most cases the achievements do fall short of the planned goals."

Artur Isenberg, Editor
Kidma: Israel Journal of Development, 9(1), 1986, "From the Editor's Desk," p. 2.

Chapter Five

OBTAINING SUPPORT FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION PROJECTS

Sources of materials, personnel and money must be located in order for international development education projects to be undertaken. Obtaining this support is seldom happenstancial. It usually is the result of a long-term systematic process. In order to be successful, non-profit, voluntary organizations working in the field of international development education have to institute approaches that will prepare their representatives to be ready to respond to unforeseen opportunities for backing, as well as to initiate preplanned grant proposals. This involves setting up a basic five step circular and ongoing procedure.

The steps involved in finding the necessary resources for educational development projects are:

(1) Gathering and organizing all of the relevant information.

(2) Formulating carefully edited data into a presentable and convincing general prospectus.

(3) Compiling a potential "guest list" of contacts, constituencies, possible support groups, funders, and in-kind providers.

(4) Initiating a public information effort designed to disseminate comprehension of and support for the project.

(5) Preparing and presenting specific proposals for obtaining human resources, receiving in-kind assistance, or getting grants of funds.

1. Getting and Processing Information

There are two methods of obtaining germane data and arranging it into a usable format. One way is to follow a manual process of writing down the information. This involves using lined paper, setting up the sub-categories on several sets of organizational tabs, and keeping the material in a looseleaf notebook cover. In many cases this is actually the most efficient approach because frequently the data is gathered on field trips or office visits

where it is necessary to have portable equipment. Eventually the information must be edited and typed. The alternative technique involves having access to a computer. In this case, the same headings that would have been established in the notebook are used in order toprogram and sequence the material through a word processor.

Seeking the content that will later be revised in order to frame a general prospectus, is like putting together an object using an erector set. The erector set contains joints and pieces that come in standard forms and lengths. By assembling them with nuts and bolts it is possible to make a tower, derrick or even an airplane. Similarly, by means of the information gathering exercise we aim to collect the items of data that can be formed into an effective project proposal. Four main kinds of information are needed for this purpose: the components of a conceptual framework, evidence that will verify the legitimacy of the project, the specific details about the project operation, and input concerning the human beings who will be affected by and/or participating in the project.

(1) The Conceptual Framework

(1.1) Needs Assessment

First hand descriptions and statistics that make evident the needs to be addressed by your project will be required. Charts, graphs, maps, trend analyses and scenarios can often be helpfully employed to enhance readers' awareness of what is needed in order to improve conditions and meliorate the situation.

(1.2) Problem Statement

A precise and comprehensible statement of exactly what the difficulties or issues that are being encountered are, along with the aims and objectives of the intervention that is being contemplated comprises this category of material. Remember that aims are the anticipated long-range outcomes, while objectives are the measurable, immediate impacts.

(1.3) Documentary Survey

A report must be compiled of all the related literature concerning similar situations. It will also summarize the views of experts about the means of improving conditions that have been applied elsewhere in order to address the same type of problem.

(1.31) Include a complete bibliographical citation with each summary of a document such as a journal article, project report, monograph or book.

(1.32) Write a short resume of each document being surveyed.

(1.33) Select and compile brief direct quotations that can be used to enhance and verify the documentary evidence.

(1.4) Policy Declarations

Gather the texts of relevant laws, official pronouncements, regulations, interviews and speeches.

(1.41) Identify the legal and policy foundations of the problem that you wish to address.

(1.42) Get acquainted with the views about it expressed by government officials, agency heads, community leaders, volunteers and local citizens.

(1.43) Seek out parallel institutional or organizational statements of intents and goals.

(1.5) Theoretical Rationale and Discussion of Methods

Become familiar with the conceptual frameworks that scholars have developed concerning similar issues and be able to explain the methodology you plan to use in detail.

(1.51) Collect suggestive ideas from related fields such as anthropology, community action, group dynamics, learning theory, social psychology, sociology and urban planning.

(1.52) Set forth testable hypotheses related to meeting the needs and resolving the problems that you have identified.

(1.53) Explicate the methodologies you wish to use in order to address the problem of your client, community or society.

(2) Legitimizing the Project

It will require five types of evidence to give credibility to your organization's competence to carry out its project plans.

(2.1) Previous Grant Requests

Record all of your other applications for support, together with information about their current status and outcome.

(2.2) Evaluations

Compile the appraisals of the past efforts of your organization that indicate its degree of success.

(2.21) Give the assessments of consultants and outside observers.

(2.22) Provide evidence of the impact of the previous work.

(2.23) Narrate the accounts of some of the people who were involved in the earlier efforts.

(2.3) Publicity

Collect copies of previous news releases from your organization, photographs, brochures and other

such printed matter, your annual and project reports, and any coverage that you have received in the mass media.

(2.4) Certifications and Exemptions

Individuals and foundations will be able to make grants to your organization only if you can demonstrate that your group is recognized as a legal entity by the government, has received formal approval as a non-profit agency, and has tax-exempt status. In most cases, this means that you need to have on hand your articles of incorporation, or the official statement of your acceptance as an arm of another institution, organization or branch of government that confers these characteristics. You will be required to furnish certified copies of the relevant documents and state their date and official number. This is true in the United States and even more important in many other countries.

(2.5) Personnel Resumes

Write up professional summaries for all of the key people in your group, and make a list of the entire staff. Prepare a structural model and systems flow chart showing exactly how your organization operates.

(3) Project Specifics

(3.1) Project Design

Formulate the first draft of the step-by-step process of implementation that your organization will follow if it has the resources needed in order to carry out the project.

(3.2) Tentative Budget

Compile all of the data that is available to you regarding your probable project costs, wages and income. This must be realistic but not expansive.

(3.3) Advisory Board

List and give the qualifications of the people who have agreed to serve your organization as a "guiding" or

"steering" committee for the prospective project. Record any relationships that exist among the individuals who will comprise your board and the policy makers at possible supporting foundations or government agencies. The purpose for doing this is twofold. It will help you to recognize possible means of making contact. Also, it can help to ensure that there are no conflicts of interest.

(4) The Human Factors

Although the environment, economic trends and social factors are all important for international development education, we must always remember that projects in this domain involve human beings. People will make plans and work together in order to carry out the project, and people will be affected by the success or failure of the venture. Therefore, it is well to reserve a major section of the data collection format for information about people whose perceptions of the work will be critical to its well-being.

(4.1) Government Officials

Give the names and addresses of the elected representatives and civil service officers whose support for the project will be important. Indicate their office telephone numbers, past voting records, and the views that they have expressed about the issues involved in the project that you hope to initiate.

(4.2) Officers at Supporting Organizations

Provide the names, title, addresses and office phone numbers for key people at agencies, foundations, institutions or other groups that might be involved in funding the project, or making available to it personnel or material aid.

(4.3) Community Leaders

Identify the individuals who live in the local area or region that will be affected by the project, and who would be involved in either implementing or impeding the work to be done.

(4.4) Target Population

Name specifically who the constituency or beneficiaries of the project are to be.

2. Assembling a General Prospectus

Based on the information that has now been compiled, the next activities involve preparing a coherent basic prospectus. The first phase of this proceedure requires some "brainstorming." By this we mean engaging many people in a relatively unstructured process of generating imaginative ideas.

Up to this point almost everything that has been done was descriptive. Needs were identified and problems explained. The past track record of your organization, its resources and network of linkages were presented. It will be very difficult to arouse much enthusiasm about meeting the perceived needs and resolving the problems unless a creative dimension is added. Policy makers at support agencies and foundations are probably already well aware of most needs and problems that you can identify. They are looking for some new ideas about them that might have a future impact. In other words, officials usually prefer not to back current operations. They are not likely to accept proposals for more of the same treatments. They are likely to respond favorably to innovative concepts - fresh and original ideas.

All you have to do, therefore, is to come up with many appealing concepts for addressing the needs and meliorating the problems that you have already expressed. It isn't sufficient just to devise one or two new notions. All of the people who are involved in your effort can contribute their thinking and give you scores of possible approaches.

These ideas are more likely to come to mind if the group has a "brainstorming" session. Here individuals are encouraged to communicate their notions, even if at first glance they appear to be visionary or impractical. Hopefully, ten, twenty or more potentially useable and fundable ideas can be extracted from all of the notions that are compiled.

As you begin to sort out and evaluate the concepts that have been articulated, remember that many of them may appeal to and attract support from specific types of sponsors. For example, independent agencies may be interested in approaches that wouldn't be backed by an arm of government. Some ideas may be selling points to special interest groups - advocates for minorities, the handicapped, or disadvantaged. So bringing together a goodsized repertoire of ideas will prepare you to be able to address various perspectives and concerns among your possible sources of support.

Remember to come up with some water tumblers, not a pipe line. By this we mean that most support groups want to see some well defined action proposals that have clear perimeters and a specific time limit. They are looking for focused projects that are cost effectiveand yet likely to produce permanent results. Unfortunately, this agenda may contradict the outlook of many international development educators. The educators are likely to assume that learning is a long-term, cumulative process. Human resources, they will assert, take years to develop. When we attempt to teach new attitudes and provide alternatives to traditional ways of doing things, we can't expect to reach our goals quickly. Yet funders prefer one year, three year, or - at the most - five year projects. We'd much rather work on instituting lengthy reforms. Our funders would rather see bite sized innovations. We are back to the erector set, assembling larger projects from smaller components.

There is definitely a "bang for the buck (or the cruzeiro)" aspect to prospectus writing. Support sources never have unlimited resources. So it is important for you to be convincing that it is realistic to believe that if they deploy a moderate investment for a short period of time that results can be accomplished that will last after the project has ended. Your potential backers must be assured that your group can meet its project aims and objectives within the estimates that you give them.

A Framework for Working Up an Idea for Resolving a Problem

Each of the original ideas someone in your group has suggested can be considered by placing it within a systematic framework.

(2.1) Draft Project Title

Devise a name that stresses a project built around this idea of how to resolve the problem.

(2.2) Project Location

Indicate where the project would function if it were implemented on the basis of this idea.

(2.21) Administrative Unit
(2.22) Community
(2.23) Province or State
(2.24) Region
(2.25) Nation

(2.3) Impact Targets

According to this concept of the project, who will constitute its constituency?

Children? Youths? Adults? Men? Women? Seniors? A minority? The disadvantaged? Handicapped? A particular socio-economic group?

Where will the project's impact be felt?

Rural? Suburban? Metropolitan? Inner city? Among a profession? Vocation? Occupational group? Employed? Underemployed? Unemployed?

(2.4) Aims and Objectives

Using this concept of the project, what would be its aims?

What are likely to be the long-range benefits? What can be accomplished over five years? What results of the work will be evident after a decade?

If this idea were implemented, what objectives would it meet?

What would be its demonstrable immediate and short-term outcomes? On behavior? On attitudes? On ways of thinking? On interpersonal and inter-group relations? On skills? On values?

(2.5) The Action Plan

Describe in detail the work that would be undertaken, in terms of the methods of treatment to be applied, if this idea were adopted.

(2.6) Required Resources

Work up a tentative estimate of what would be necessary in order to carry out the project on the basis of this main idea.

Personnel? Equipment? Facilities? Travel? Contracted services? Consultants? Monthly costs?

Draw up a tentative estimate of the total budget needed to make this idea work.

(2.7) Anticipating Snags

Consider and list the possible difficulties and drawbacks of this concept about how the project ought to function.

(2.8) Alternatives and Variants

Look for alternative approaches to the one that you have just been considering. How do the other options compare with the first idea you explored?

At what points would each type of intervention begin to interface with the work being done by other groups or project agencies?

Cross Indexing

As the basic ideas about the project begin to fall into place, the more ways that you can think about what you want to do, the greater the probability that you can get support for it. Reflect on all of the possible formats that the work might take. Try to redefine the problem so that various solutions to it may be considered. By speculating about the broadest possible range of approaches, you and your group will have the greatest degree of flexibility and space for negotiation.

Domain	Connection with Your Project
Communication	
Documentaries	
Film Making	
Journalism	
Publishing	
Radio	
Television	
Writing	
Other	
Education	
Infant Care	
Early Childhood Learning	
. . . .	

Planning

Development projects require careful planning and negotiating with the people who are supposed to benefit from them. This means that good rapport must be established with local individuals, and that the development educator has to learn to speak their language. Often their daily tongue is a dialect or creole of a language such as English or Spanish. The communication, however, will also be a reflection of the life experiences of people who inhabit a particular locality. The outsider simply has to penetrate the orientation and mental outlook of the people with whom the project is supposed to function.

Project aims and objectives should come from interactions with the target constituency, and often are best expressed in their own words. Realistic goals need to be identified, to be accomplished within a reasonable time frame. Many international development education projects have failed because too many expectations and hopes were raised. When the intervention failed to produce everything that was anticipated it was then judged to have been a total failure. This type of disaster can be avoided if knowledgeable local leaders are consulted so that attainable aims and objectives are chosen.

Remember that the distinction between aims and objectives is that an aim is a long range fundamental outcome. The achievement of higher rates of employment due to more people having learned productive skills, for example, is an aim. A better standard of living caused by families having learned more about nutrition and food production is another. Aims take time and are usually evaluated after five years or even a decade. Objectives are shorter range goals that are observable and often measureable. It is important to carefully word the objectives of a project so that everyone involved clearly comprehends them. There must be agreed upon semiotics, by which is meant the indicators or criteria that show whether or not the objective has been met. Also, it is vital to help all of the participants to understand that in most cases, objectives will be partially achieved. The project won't be a total washout, nor will it score A+ - the outcome is more likely to be somewhere in between these extremes.

There must be a step by step project design worked out, negotiated, and agreed upon prior to initiating the actual work. How will the task be initiated? Who will do what? What resources will be required? How will scarce resources be deployed? What are the phases of the project? How will transitions from phase to phase be made? What will the bounds of the project be? Who will be included? What area will be involved? What services will be given? Which services will be excluded from this project? Does everybody understand and accept the rationale? It is much better to take extra time to make certain that thorough planning has been done, than to rush into operation, only to find that confusion reigns.

Planning, implementing, and evaluating international development education projects is actually a form of action research. It is therefore very important to maintain a good record of the processes that are involved. Just when the development educators are busiest, this requires maintaining a daily journal describing all of the transactions and negotiations. If it is feasible, either tape recording or videotaping planning meetings will be very helpful. Orderly procedures are necessary, and minutes of the meetings ought to be kept regularly.

As the project is developed, it should be possible to trace the evolution of key concepts and changing perspectives. If the work truly comes from the desires and goals of the local constituency, it is to be expected that there will be some shifts of outlook over time, and that the aims and objectives also will evolve out of the working relationships. Without being completely open ended, therefore, it is wise to anticipate changes and provide leeway so that some new options can eventually be incorporated into the project plan.

Implementation

Ceremony is part of most cultures, and educational projects ought to be inaugurated with some appropriate exercises. The duration of the original phase of the project should be specified at this time. Will the first segment of the work, for example, last for a year? Two years? Three years? Five years? Most projects last for two or three years, initially, and then are assessed, revised if need be, and continued for the next period of time. When a project is institutionalized so that it will continue to be carried out for the foreseeable future, it has become a program. A project, therefore, is normally short range. It functions within a specified time frame of a few months or several years.. A program is often more complex, including many projects, and persists for longer periods of time. Programs may be carried out in five year segments, or be ten or even twenty year undertakings.

The transition from planning to implementation is a crucial one. Care must be taken to see that the previous levels of cooperation and open communication are maintained or even improved. Now individuals are actually working together, making real functional collaboration possible. There must be at least daily opportunities for sharing experiences and verbal interaction. International development education requires creating support groups and some vehicles for collective action.

Evaluation

Built into the design for implementing the project should be a variety of assessment procedures. These can vary from measuring behavioral changes to simple anecdotal accounts by clients about what they have experienced. Hardly ever, however, will standardized achievement tests be useable because they pertain to different constituencies than those normally included in development education projects. Social statistics can be very helpful, though. Mobility or its lack, for instance, indicates educational impact.

So do employment data and information about earning power. Other possible criteria of evaluation include housing, clothing, use of resources, marriage patterns, nutrition, sanitation and hygiene, and similar indicators.

Also the dynamics of the community or neighborhood must be taken into account. Have living conditions been improved? Are the streets safer? Do people work together more? Have any community projects taken place as a result of the educational efforts? Has the local infa-structure, in short, been benefitted?

It is evaluative criteria such as these that need to be obtained and recorded. Public relations requires that the constituency of a project get to know what it is accomplishing. Few funding sources will continue support if there is no evidence of the project's success.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. If possible, the best way to learn about planning, implementing, and evaluating international development education projects is to participate in one. Look around in your town or region, and you can probably find a project awaiting your involvement. You can carry out the work as an internship or practicum.

2. Obtain and review copies of actual project reports for some efforts in the international development education field. Many are on file in The Isaac N. Thut World Education Center (TWEC), located on the fourth floor of the C.B. Gentry Building at The University of Connecticut in Storrs, or at similar centers at other institutions of higher learning.

"If it is not appropriate for women, it is not appropriate."

Poster,
Tech and Tools Exhibition,
University of Nairobi,
Kenya,
1985.

Chapter Six

CURRENT ISSUES IN EDUCATION FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Today several focal points of concern and divergent perspectives can be recognized in the development field. Three of these issues seem to be particularly germane for international educators and these will be explored in this chapter. They are: (1) the role of women in development, (2) formal versus nonformal development education, and (3) the controversy regarding technological transfers and appropriate technologies.

The Role of Women in Development

When the condition of the world's women is considered from a development point of view shocking inequities come to light.

> There were twenty-seven million more boys than girls enrolled in elementary and secondary levels of education in 1950; currently there are eighty million more boys than girls enrolled.
>
> Educated women rank higher in verbal skills than educated men but in the global community, not including China, there are 130 million more adult women than men who cannot read and write.
>
> Women are fifty percent of the teachers in primary schools, but only thirty-one percent in secondary schools, and twenty-six percent in higher education.
>
> Women account for half of the students studying for advanced degrees in the humanities, education, and fine arts; for one-quarter in the more powerful fields of engineering, law, and medicine.[1]

There are now two and one-half billion women in the world, speaking 2,976 languages, and living in societies where the annual incomes range from less than $200 to $30,000 per capita. Their life expectancies at birth in 1985 vary as much as thirty-six years. The average woman lives only forty-four years in Afganistan or Chad, but eighty years is their average life expectancy in Iceland or Japan. The world average life expectancy for women is sixty-six years, with many countries, including the United States and Canada, well above it at seventy-eight. In some other nations, however, women, on the average, live much shorter lifespans.

Guatemala	(64)	Bolivia	(55)
Honduras	(64)	Ghana	(55)
Peru	(63)	Nigeria	(54)
Morocco	(62)	India	(53)
Egypt	(61)	Bangladesh	(50)
Iran	(59)	Angola	(48)
Haiti	(56)	Nepal	(47) [2]

Other statistical data yield contrasts that are equally broad.

> There are countries where nine out of ten women over the age of twenty-five have had no schooling whatsoever; at the other extreme, six out of ten women of university age are enrolled in higher education. In some countries, women begin their reproductive years before age fifteen and as a rule bear seven or eight children in their lives; in others, the average is less than two children.[3]

Women's literacy, which is the percentage of the female population aged fifteen and older who can read and write, in 1985 on the one hand was between ninety-eight and one hundred percent in northern and western European countries, Australia, New Zealand, Japan, the Soviet Union, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Canada, and the United States. On the other, in Afganistan, Nepal, Saudi Arabia, the Yemen Arab Republic, Ethiopia, Somalia, Chad, Niger, Mali, Senegal and Guinea it was under twenty percent. Only between twenty and thirty-

nine percent of the women in Algeria, Angola, Bangladesh, Egypt, India, Iran, Morocco, Mozambique, Pakistan, and the Sudan are literate. Just about half the women in Burma, Cameroon, Congo, Iraq, Libya, Syria, Turkey, and Zaire are. The percentages of women who can read and write rise to between sixty and seventy-five percent in Brazil, Bolivia, China, Indonesia, and Peru. In Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Greece, Italy, Mexico, the Philippines, Portugal, and Spain between eighty and ninety-seven percent of the women are literate. Overall, however, these figures show that many women in the world today haven't been able to achieve their potential because of educational inequities and handicaps.[4]

Faced with these disparities women have recently started to come together. There is a movement for change among them that is visible everywhere. It can be seem in the Women's Movement, Women's Studies, and Women's Centers in the United States. It is especially evident in the International Decade for Women of the United Nations which began in 1976. Women are even finding a new awareness of their needs and some support from men in previously male-dominated institutions. In fact, there is a small men's liberation movement that seeks to free males from their sexually stereotyped roles, too.

More policy-makers now recognize that women's advancement and general socio-economic progress are linked. When women are better educated, trained to possess productive skills, and are well informed, the evidence demonstrates that family health, general well-being, and income all improve. When women can contribute more to the nation's productivity, the economy grows. What benefits women, therefore, also serves the best interests of the entire society. Inversely, attempts to progress that ignore women who are half the population are doomed to failure.[5]

It is in the field of education that women in many nations have made their greatest gains in recent decades. Since their opportunities to learn affect the number of children to which they will give birth, as well as their homemaking skills and potential earning power, it is clear the education is a means of developing the human potential of women. Most governments, therefore, have by now legally

removed the formal barriers barring girls from the school system. This does not, however, end discrimination based on the customs and mores of the local culture. According to UNESCO projections, in 1985 about three hundred million more girls will be enrolled in the world's schools and universities than attended them in 1950, but boys will still greatly outnumber them. At the primary and secondary levels boys represent fifty-five percent and girls forty-five percent of the totals. At the tertiary level, however, boys occupy fifty-seven percent of the places and girls have only forty-three percent of them.[6]

Many factors influence women's ability to participate in development. Among them are culturally imposed sex roles, stereotypes, and constraints that are conveyed through the processes of socialization which begin in the home and community at an early age. All societies socialize their children. Boys, in general, are expected to be active, competitive, and combative. Girls are usually taught to be passive, docile, and obedient. The mass media frequently reinforce these traditional sexual stereotypes. Advertizements for household cleaning products will address women, while machinery and advanced technology are merchandised to men. We all know who is supposedly responsible for "ring around the collar" and to what audience the bathing beauties artfully draped over new model sports cars are addressed.

Textbooks and instructional programs, unfortunately, still often purvey sexual stereotypes. A study conducted in one state in the United States of America, for example, discovered that seventy-five percent of the illustrations in the official textbooks showed activities of boys and men. If there was a machine in the picture, males were invariably depicted. The textbooks used in Latin American countries at the primary level have also been found to to filled with illustrations that communicate masculine dominance. Women are shown, if at all, in passive roles, usually as housewives. Another study prepared for the European Community reported that school textbooks in this part of the world haven't changed much over the years. They were, and still are, filled with sexual stereotypes.

The teaching process and instructional materials employed could help to alter, as well as to preserve, the old sexist

patterns. Teachers ought to carefully examine their texts, therefore, to identify the biases that they contain. They should devise ways of communicating more functional and equitable images of healthy sexual roles in society.[7]

The problem is that the educational establishments in most countries suffer from sexual discrimination while trying to inculcate equity among the sexes. There is sexual segregation within the school systems themselves. Few women, for instance, are superintendents, school principals, or department heads. Even fewer are at the policy-making levels of school systems or ministries of education. Vertical segregation is also pronounced in most institutions of higher learning. Relatively few women ever achieve the rank of full professor. In Europe, for example, of the professors at universities, in France only nine percent are women, only five percent are women in the German Democratic Republic, and a mere three percent are in the United Kingdom. There is also visible horizontal segregation. Most women academicians are in the humanities or social sciences. In the German universities, for example, only two percent of the women who hold professorial chairs are in chemistry, engineering, math, or physics.[8]

Women everywhere in the world are therefore facing inhibitions to their achieving their optimum roles in development. These will not be removed simply by their attaining equal educational opportunities. They also must be emancipated from being commonly regarded as commodities to be manipulated and expended according to male decisions. Today, women want to exercise equal power with men in allocating development resources and opportunities. They want to vote in elections, and women's suffrage is almost universal except in Kuwait; and in Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates where both men and women are equally disenfranchised. Sadly, this is also the case for the Black majority in South Africa. Only when women can study the issues and freely cast their ballots will their political and social views be influential. When women are included in the electorate more women will be appointed or elected to positions of responsibility in the society. All nations still have a long way to go in order to provide their women with equity in the economic, political, and social spheres.

The writers of a publication from DAWN (Development Alternatives with Women for a New Era) prepared for the Nairobi Conference in 1985 noted:

> Equality for women is impossible within the existing economic, political, and cultural processes that reserve resources, power, and control for small sections of people. But neither is development possible without greater equity for and participation by women. Our vision of feminism has at its very core a process of economic and social development geared to human needs through wider access to economic and political power.[9]

If these assertions are true, we must inquire what caused contemporary conditions. In many parts of the world it was undoubtedly the colonial era that undermined the position of women. The native population found its access to land limited, the soil, forests, and people were exploited for the benefit of the imperial power, urban slums were produced, accompanied by many social ills, including a rise in prostitution.

It is not true that "white man's burden" of colonial rule brought with it greater respect for womanhood and new opportunities for the female population. The fact is that female poverty increased significantly under the colonial regimes. They did not bring egalitarian relations, but disseminated gender based male domination and female subordination instead. There were much more respectful relations prior to the colonial conquests, than there are now in the post-colonial period. For this reason, development planners must take care that they not perpetuate the passive role assigned to women by most of the prior colonial governments. Women were placed in very vulnerable positions, doing the most onerous, labor-intensive, and poorly rewarded tasks both inside and outside the home.

This situation will persist unless development programs are intentionally designed to meet the needs of women. There must be substantial feminine participation in their planning, implementation, and evaluation. They must be assessed in terms of what their impact on women is. Otherwise, a slogan will continue to sum things up.

> Women do two-thirds of the world's work, earn ten percent of the world's income, and own just one percent of the world's property.[10]

Chapter Six

SUGGESTED READINGS

The Role of Women in Development

Development, Crises and Alternative Visions: Third World Women's Perspectives. DAWN (Development Alternatives with Women for a New Era). New Delhi, India: Institute of Social Science, 1985.
Order from: Institute of Social Science, S.M.M. Theatre Crafts Building, 5 Deen Dayal Upadhyay Marg., New Delhi 110 002, India.

The Effects of Racism and Militarization on Women's Equality. New York: Women's Coalition for Nairobi, 1985.
Order from: Women's Coalition for Nairobi, 130 East Sixteenth Street, New York, N.Y. 10003.

Peace, Equality and Development.
Forward-Looking Strategies of Implementation for the Advancement of Women and Concrete Measures to Overcome Obstacles to the Achievement of the Goals and Objectives of the UN Decade for the Period 1986 to the Year 2000. New York: United Nations, 1985. UN Document A/Conf. 116(12), June 6, 1985.

Rethinking Women and Development.
UNICEF Ideas Forum, 21(2), 1985.
Order from: UNICEF, UN Plaza, New York, N.Y. 10017.

The State of the World's Women, 1985.
Compiled and written on behalf of the UN by the New Internationalist Publications Cooperative.
Oxford, England, U.K.: New Internationalist Publications Cooperative, 1985.
Order from: NIPC, 42, Hythe Bridge Street, Oxford, OX1, 2EP, United Kingdom.

Women in Development: A Resource Guide for Organization and Action. ---: Women's International Information and Communication Service (ISIS), 1984.

"Women - Protagonists of Change," in Development: Journal of the Society for International Development, 4, 1984.
Order from: The Society for International Development, Palazzo della Civilta del Lavoro - EUR, Rome 00144, Italy.

World Survey on the Role of Women in Development: A Report to the Secretary General. New York: United Nations, 1984. UN Document, A/Conf. 116(4), December 11, 1984.

Formal versus Nonformal Development Education

Bock, John C., and George J. Papagiannis, editors Nonformal Education and National Development: A Critical Assessment of Policy, Research, and Practice. New York: Praeger Publishers, 1983. 348 pp., bibliography and index.

The history of nonformal learning in national development programs is presented, and there are six case studies of nonformal approaches in Africa, Latin America, and Southeast Asia. The institutionalization of nonformal education is discussed, the Sarvodaya Shramadana Movement in Sri Lanka is described, and there is an economic analysis of the impact of a nonformal project in Guatemala. The book concludes with essays on agricultural and public health training, The People's Education Association (PEA) of Ghana, evaluation methods, and learning environment theory.

Coles, Edwin K. Townsend Maverick of the Education Family: Two Essays in Non-Formal Education. New York: Pergamon Press, 1982. 69 pp., maps, appendices and index.

These essays were written by an individual who formerly was Chief Education Officer, Nonformal Education, in Botswana. Nonformal education in the towns, villages, and neighborhoods of this country is described by a knowledgeable pratitioner.

Coombs, Philip H. with Manzoor Ahmed _Attacking Rural Poverty: How Nonformal Education Can Help_. Baltimore, MD: The Johns Hopkins University Press, 1974. 254 pp., appendices, bibliography, and index.

Agricultural extension and training programs are discussed in this book, as well as training for non-farm occupations. Self-help approaches are described, and the technologies used for nonformal education analyzed. The authors also explain the economics of nonformal education and suggest some approaches for planning, organizing, managing, and staffing. This research report for the World Bank prepared by the International Council for Educational Development is both theoretical and also a practical handbook.

Nachtigal, Paul M., editor _Rural Education: In Search of a Better Way_. Boulder, CO: Westview Press, 1982. Westview Special Studies in Education. 311 pp., index.

The editor has written a survey of rural education in the United States and interprets the history of efforts to improve it. There are then thirteen case studies of rural education development projects, the majority of which employed nonformal approaches. Four essays interpreting what worked and why it was successful conclude the book.

Sher, Jonathan P. _Rural Education in Urbanized Nations: Issues and Innovations_. An OECD/CERI Report. Boulder, CO: Westview Press, 1981. 346 pp.

The context of education in the countryside is examined, and then there are case studies of five nonformal and five in-school innovations, several of which also employed nonformal processes. The examples come from Alaska, Australia, Finland, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Scotland, and two other areas of the United States.

NOTES

1 Ruth Leger Sivard, Women: A World Survey. Washington, D.C.: World Priorities, 1985, p. 5.

2 Ibid., p. 6.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid., p. 7.

5 Ibid.

6 Ibid., p. 19.

7 Ibid., p. 20.

8 Ibid., p. 21.

9 Laurien Alexandre, "Whose Development?: Women Strategize," Christianity and Crisis 45(14), September 16, 1985, p. 344.

10 Ibid., p. 346.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Develop position statements in your group similar to the one on the role of women in development given in this chapter for formal versus nonformal development education, and issues of technological transfers and appropriate technologies.

2. Sponsor a round table of spokespeople qualified to address one of the current issues in education for international development. The event might be videotaped so that other groups could utilize the material presented.

3. Contact Women's Centers and Women's Studies programs to find out what they are doing about involving more women in international development education.

FILIPINO WORDS TO LIVE BY

Horacio de la Costa, S. J.

A Filipino priest suggests five concepts that are basic to his people's culture, values and aspirations.

PAGSASARILI is the principle of self-reliance, the burning desire of every Filipino to be a responsible, complete human being.

PAKIKISAMA is the equitable sharing of goods and services in a spirit of partnership among all who help to produce the goods or render the services. It is the willingness to share the burdens as well as the rewards of living together.

PAGKAKAISA is the spirit of national independence - the whole movement of our history of 7,000 islands and 70 languages; of Indian spirituality, Chinese humanism, Malay enterprise, Spanish hidalguia, Anglo-Saxon technology, animist Bahala na, Muslim dedication and the Christian commitment. It is the building up of an articulated national community through forms of social organizations understood, accepted and undertaken by the people.

PAGKABAYANI is to be a patriot, to put the common good of the nation above private interest, to be willing to put one's life at the service of building up one's nation.

PAKIKIPAGKAPUWA-TAO is to be a friend to everyone on the basis of equality. It is human solidarity, a dedication ultimately to the total development of the human race.

Reprinted from Maryknoll 78(2), February, 1984, pp. 3 - 6.

Chapter Seven

Case Studies of International Development Education Projects

It is informative to examine and analyze the processes involved in actual applied international development education programs and projects. We will review four well known types of development education that were implemented in various parts of the world in this chapter. Each part of the chapter will be a condensed account of the project or program, based on records compiled by people who participated in it.

Readers of this material should raise six questions as they reflect on these accounts.

1. How was the pre-planning diagnosis of needs and resources conducted in each case?

2. After the special needs for educational development had been identified, how were the priority learning aims and objectives determined?

3. How was an appropriate educational delivery system devised?

4. How were the required resources and potential costs and benefits assessed?

5. Were any imaginative or innovative solutions devised in order to implement the project or program more effectively or efficiently?

6. What criteria were employed in order to evaluate the results of the educational development initiative?

Let us now turn our attention to the National Literacy Crusade of Nicaragua; Head Start - A Child Development Program in the United States; Integrated Nonformal Education in Botswana; and the Sarvodaya Shramadana Movement of Sri Lanka.

Case Study One

The National Literacy Crusade of Nicaragua

The war to bring the regime of Anastasio Somoza Garcia, Jr. to an end in Nicaragua came to a successful conclusion in the summer of 1979. The Sandinista National Liberation Front (FSLN), which had organized the Nicaraguans to achieve national liberty, now formed a new government. It faced a critical situation.

> The Sandinista revolutionaries inherited an underdeveloped, underpopulated country, the capital city of which had been flattened by an earthquake in 1972 and never rebuilt. Now other cities, too, were in ruins. Factories were twisted skeletons of rusting steel, stucco row houses were roofless shells, destroyed by Somoza's aerial bombing, the gaping remains of their common walls pockmarked from strafing. Almost 50,000 Nicaraguans had been killed and 100,000 more wounded, out of a population of 2.5 million. Forty thousand children had been orphaned, and 200,000 families left homeless. In the countryside, crops had gone unplanted or untended or had been pounded flat; three quarters of a million people were dependent on food assistance.[1]

These were the conditions being faced by the revolutionary government. The country was bankrupt. Its Central Bank had only $3.5 million left in foreign exchange. The Somoza regime had left Nicaragua with a foreign debt of $1.6 billion. This was the largest per-capita debt in all of Latin America at the time. Yet Nicaragua was almost entirely dependent on agricultural exports to earn foreign exchange. Little domestic industry had been developed, and even less effort had been made to meet the social needs of the people. Malnutrition was widespread, and the Nicaraguan infant morality rate exceeded twelve percent. Life expectancy for the average Nicaraguan was less than fifty-two years. More than half of the population couldn't read and write.[2]

Yet within a month of the victory, the new authorities announced a national literacy crusade - a war on ignorance. Eight months later the entire society was mobilized in order to achieve its goals. As Sheryl Hirshon, the author of an account of this second great effort to re-make Nicaragua, explains, implementing this priority was a very conscious policy decision.

> Illiteracy is a social disability having effects that go far beyond being unable to read. Illiteracy breeds a sense of social inferiority that permeates how people think, not only about things, but about themselves in relation to others. Authoritarian rulers throughout history have understood this, manipulating the helplessness of their subjects as much through paternalism as raw power.
>
> The literacy crusade was one expression of the Nicaraguan revolution's determination to give power to the people, to make them actors in their own social destiny. And it also taught them to read.[3]

The final sentence of this quotation is "Y tambien enseneles a leer" in Spanish, and it became a motto of the crusade. The words were said by Carlos Fonseca Amador, a founder of the FSLN and its chief theoretician, who was later killed in combat. He had observed a group of campesinos learning to handle weapons. His comment to their trainers ended with, "And also teach them to read." The idea that a literacy campaign was a vital part of the total Nicaraguan social revolution, therefore, was developed long before the movement was a political success.

The rationale of the program was expressed by Father Fernando Cardenal, the Jesuit who officially directed the literacy crusade. He asserted in February, 1980 that:

> Literacy is fundamental to achieving progress and is essential to the building of a democratic society where people can participate consciously and critically in national decision-making. You learn to read and write so that you can identify the reality in which you live, so that you can become a protagonist of history rather than a spectator.[4]

The Nicaraguan "La Cruzada Nacional de Alfabetizacion" wasn't without some parallels in other nations. The Nicaraguans knew about the Cuban experience that had been carried out about twenty years earlier. It, however, had been started when the Cuban revolution was two years old, and it had evolved over several years. The Nicaraguans were committed to a campaign that would achieve their main objectives in only five months. It was to be undertaken exactly eight months and four days after the Sandinista movement came to power.

Other national literacy campaigns that the Nicaraguan planners studied were those carried out by Paulo Freire in Brazil and Chile, the program in Peru, and the campaigns undertaken in Guinea Bissau and Sao Tome, Africa, which were also very poor countries. They apparently were not cognizant of several other Asian and Middle Eastern literacy programs, or possibly chose to overlook them because several were not communist or socialist in ideology.

The Nicaraguan planners, from the start, realized that teaching literacy skills on a large scale has many implications. Roberto Saenz, who is now Vice Minister for Adult Education, helped to devise the Nicaraguan literacy campaign. Saenz said:

> It is a political project with pedagogical implications, not a pedagogical project with political implications. There are no neutral projects, not in Nicaragua, not in the United States, not anywhere. Every social project carries with it an ideology - in order to maintain a system, to reproduce a system, or to sustain a process of profound change.[5]

The goals of this literacy crusade were fivefold. First, the program was to be a general mobilization of the entire population of Nicaragua in order to achieve some well defined social objectives. Second, the literacy campaign would especially involve young people, most of whom hadn't actually fought in the revolution, in radical action and give them a

share of the revolutionary mystique. The notion was that they then would not simply have inherited a movement for social change, but have contributed to it by participating in it.

Third, peasants were to be enlightened and empowered by acquiring basic reading, writing, and computing skills. The enemy was ignorance - both the lack of functional abilities and unawareness of oppressive realities. These were dragons that the whole people was being called upon to rout and slay. Fourth, the campaign required thousands of intellectuals to spend five months in rural villages or urban slums. During this period of first hand experience, it was anticipated that they, too, would come to know the grim realities of Nicaraguan society. They would also establish rapport and friendships with their host families and students that would help to unify the country. Finally, this campaign was definitely a political effort. It demonstrated the concern and commitment of the national authorities to end exploitation and injustices. At the same time, segments of the population that had previously been ignored were to become involved in making social decisions and policy.

The Campaign Procedures

A few days after the revolutionary government was installed, Father Fernando Cardenal was given the responsibility of devising the national literacy crusade. Working with him was a group of five young people. They had had little preparation as educators, but had been active in the struggle for liberation. It was this little group that studied other literacy campaign models, and Paulo Freire came to Nicagagua in order to personally visit with them.

A brief public announcement of the proposed literacy crusade was made, and a tiny office established for it in the civic center of Managua. This modest beginning had grown within six weeks to four office areas, each with its own assignment and staff. The four divisions of the operation were: publicity, financing and fund raising, technical preparation, and personnel training. Soon the staff reflected international cooperation with people from Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, El Salvador, Honduras, Peru, Puerto Rico, Spain, the United States, and Uruguay.[6]

Almost immediately the planners of the Nicaraguan literacy crusade faced a double dilemma. They lacked any detailed information about exactly how many illiterates there were in the country and where they lived. At the same time the campaign was literally penniless and the funds and material resources that it required had to be raised.

It was necessary that a nationwide census of the people's literacy skills and needs be compiled rapidly in order to make realistic planning feasible. Specialists and funding to undertake this phase of the project were offered to Nicaragua by UNESCO, but relying on this approach would have delayed the entire undertaking. The Nicaraguans chose to utilize their own resources.

> By October thousands of high school kids were tramping immense distances through the muddy countryside recording names, ages, educational levels, occupations, interest in learning, convenient times for teaching, and, simultaneously, if among the people there were those who wanted to teach, what day, what time, and where. The census was carried out in just one month, for less than $10,000.[7]

Viewed from a "First World" perspective, now all that had to be done was to process all of this data by computer. There were only fifteen computers in all of Nicaragua, however, and if any had been deployed for census processing the nation's financial affairs would have been interrupted. The students, therefore, analyzed the questionnaires manually by categorizing them according to region and condition on the floor of an auditorium in the capital city. Technically there is no doubt that this was a very simple methodology, but when the findings were later checked by a UNESCO expert she found the results to be quite accurate. One of the things that can be learned from the Nicaraguan literacy crusade is that labor intensive methods can often be successfully substituted for high technology.

The findings of the census were startling. Some 722,000 illiterates over the age of ten had been identified - more than half of the canvassed population. Illiteracy was heavily

concentrated in the eastern and north-central regions of the country where the underpopulated zones of Jinotega, Matagalpa, and Zelaya are located. Among the illiterates were not only adults and senior citizens, but many youths. Twenty-one percent of them were adolescents between ten and fourteen years of age. Thus, the target constituency for the literacy campaign was huge, varied, and widely diffused.

THE REPUBLIC OF NICARAGUA

Nicaraguan Provinces

1 - Boaco
2 - Carazo
3 - Chinandega
4 - Chontales
5 - Esteli
6 - Granada
7 - Jinotega
8 - Leon
9 - Madriz
10 - Managua
11 - Masaya
12 - Matagalpa
13 - Nueva Segovia
14 - Rio San Juan
15 - Rivas
16 - Zelaya

The literacy campaign fund raising was a combination of domestic and international efforts. Each province (department) in the country, and later every municipality, had a crusade office. The campaign was publicized with parades, posters, wall slogans, and talkathons. Children sold banners, buttons, "Certificates of Patriotic Contribution" and T-shirts in order to raise money for the cause. Commercial houses and factories contributed. The Industrial Bread Cooperative of Managua, for example, volunterred to donate the proceeds of one day of its production for each month of the crusade. Local fiestas were held to earn "pennies for pencils."

There were daily reports in the Nicaraguan newspapers of contributions from overseas. The headlines would read, "Support received from the government of Iraq." Or, "OAS (The Organization of American States) donates $220,000. Or, "Swedish Labor Unions promise to send 50,000 lanterns." Probably many Nicaraguan readers had never heard of some of the contributing nations and had to look them up on a world atlas, as many of them certainly hadn't previously been familiar places. It was estimated that the total cost of the campaign would be $20 million. While it wasn't possible to raise this much in gifts, enough did come in to permit the crusade to move forward.

Next a Popular Literacy Army (EPA) had to be formed and trained as basic educators. It was composed of units that were grouped according to their age and gender. Where possible volunteers from the same school would be kept together.

> Thirty brigadistas made up a squadron, four squadrons a column, and all of the squadrons in one municipality a brigade. Each squadron would have its student leader and second in command, selected from the squad itself. The column leaders would be members of the Sandinista Youth, and they in turn would form part of the high command of each brigade. The squadrons would eventually be dispatched to one of six "battle fronts" - geographic divisions based on the actual fronts of the final insurrection against the dictatorship. Each squadron bore the name of a martyr of the revolution, an important battle, or a famous international figure.[8]

The military metaphors employed may appear excessive, but this was an attempt to popularize the campaign and portray the literacy crusade as a continuation of the armed struggle. Altogether some 85,000 people had to be recruited, organized, and trained to carry out the program. This was a huge undertaking for a small nation the size of Nicaragua.

It would have been impossible for the young people in the EPA to work without supervision, so the next task was to get the elementary and secondary teachers in the country, about ten thousand individuals, to accompany the youth. They were, in fact, drafted as technical advisors for the duration of the campaign. At first there were fears that the teachers might refuse to serve, but almost without exception they enthusiastically joined in the work. Their efforts were coordinated by the National Association of Nicaraguan Educators (ANDEN), an organization somewhat like the National Education Association (NEA) in the United States.

Even most professional educators, however, haven't been prepared to teach basic literacy skills in the most underdeveloped sections of the country. Workshops were developed to train the teachers, working in a geometric manner. Originally eighty outstanding teachers were selected to take part in the pilot workshop. It was a two week course teaching linguistics and nonformal instructional methodologies, basic sanitation and nutrition, and practical things such as the symptoms of malaria. The workshop utilized group problem solving techniques, debates, role playing, and sociodramas. The teachers were taught to be role models in things like personal hygiene and food preparation. They were shown how to collect local folklore traditions. Each was urged to keep a field diary in which their observations and experiences would be compiled.

The original eighty workshop participants then went out to teach thirty more people. The 2,400 literacy and development specialists produced in these workshops then prepared the rest of the Nicaraguan teachers. They, in turn, had the responsibility of preparing the student brigadistas for their five month campaign as basic literacy educators. The schools were closed in March in order to make it possible for the teachers to carry out this phase of the program with their students.

Imagine the worries of the parents whose sons and daughters wanted to participate in the literacy crusade! They would be living, in most cases, for five months in the most backward and destitute areas of the country. Could the young people survive on a diet of tortillas and beans? What would happen to them if the counterrevolutionary terrorists attacked, as they threatened to do? What if the young people contracted a disease such as malaria, typhoid, or typhus? At least the parents demanded to know the exact location and the host family where their children would be staying while they were carrying out this assignment.

Readers can picture what the brigadistas would confront in this description of El Jicaro.

> The shacks were ancient and unpainted, with corroding zinc roofs and dirt floors. Generally, a wooden partition marked off the sleeping area, where the lineup of hammocks, boards, tijeras (folding frame cots made by crossing strips of sacking) and, rarely, a bed, gave mute evidence of the family's economic status. In the main room or just off to one side was the kitchen fire, unventilated but for a window opening, with its comal - a flat earthenware pan for cooking tortillas - and the inevitable pot of soaking corn. Close by were the hand mill and a heavy stone for grinding. The corn itself was seldom far away. Piles of the dried unhusked ears filled roof storage areas or spilled out into the main room itself. Clearly, these were the items that took precedence; whatever space was left was for sitting.[9]

Add to the scene a water jug, and a few dishes - a simple table with stools and maybe a bench against the wall - and you have the total furnishings. There usually would be crowds of children, but no toys. No glass in the windows. No curtains or mirrors. No pictures on the walls and certainly no books or other printed matter. As Hirshon remarks, "The overall effect was one of monastic simplicity."

The time had come for the next steps in implementing the literacy crusade. Final lists had to be drawn up assigning the volunteers. Some would stay in the towns and cities to teach illiterates there. Most would be heading for the remote parts of the country. A few would have to staff the emergency child care centers that were necessary because the normal schools would be closed for the five months of the campaign. Then the laborious task of actually matching the illiterates with the brigadistas began, ten illiterates per young person. Usually the younger boys and the girls were assigned to large haciendas or state farms. The older boys were sent out to more isolated areas. There were also special "red and black" squadrons that had volunteered for difficult posts and were prepared to go wherever they were sent. As some local family was needed to host each brigadista, making the assignments was no easy job and it was not unusual for them to be changed at the last minute. Of course this was much to the consternation of the young people's parents.

The other necessity before the campaign could begin was to prepare and issue the needed instructional materials. These included a manual for each brigadista. This document identified seven objectives of the National Literacy Crusade.

a. Eradicate once and for all the social phenomenon of illiteracy in Nicaragua.

b. Promote the process of awareness at the national level, so that our formerly marginated masses can integrate freely and effectively in the democratic process and take an active part in national development and reconstruction.

c. Contribute to national unity, integrating the country with the city, the worker with the student, the Atlantic with the rest of the country, etc.

d. Continue, immediately after wiping out illiteracy, with the education of adults, creating the Vice Ministry of Adult Education.

e. Facilitate the development of the New Nicaraguan Society, eliminating the evils that derive from illiteracy.

f. Contribute to the awakening of the newly literate through their closer contact with national events.

g. Carry out complementary investigations which will help us appreciate more the cultural and natural richness of our country.[10]

Also, the brigadistas had to have lesson sheets for teaching the basic literacy skills. The first lesson, for example, looked like this.

Ejercicio A[11]

1. Leamos la oración:

Sandino: guia de la Revolución.

2. Leamos las palabras:

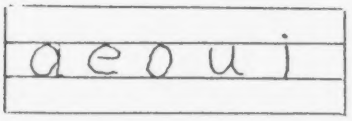
la Revolución

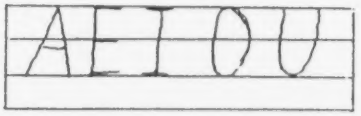
3. Leamos las vocales:

a e o u i

A E O U I

4. Leamos y escribamos las vocales:





Note: A picture of Augusto César Sandino, the peasant leader who formed a guerrilla movement to defend Nicaraguan nationalism when the U.S. Marines had occupied the country in the late 1920's, accompanied the lesson.

The first real reading is introduced in Lesson Ten.

Austerity [12]

The country has many debts. We have no money.

Many citizens are unemployed.

We have small harvests.

This is all the fault of Somoza's system.

In spite of these conditions, we can improve the economy.

With more dedication, we'll increase the country's resources.

We are sharing the little that was left by the Somocistas.

Austerity is necessary.

Besides materials such as these, as soon as the campaign got underway, weekly work plans had to be prepared and distributed. An example of one looks like this.

WORK PLAN FOR THE FIRST WEEKS [13]

1. Confirm the class group size, with at least one brigadista for each ten students.
2. Check the census.
3. Arrange meeting between the technical assistants, brigadistas and community supervisors in the course of the week.
4. Carry out a survey of families who will need food supplies in order to feed their brigadistas.
5. Construct skits and wall posters with available materials.

6. Hold study groups related to the political themes at all levels.

7. Structure a health plan for the brigadistas as well as for the community as a whole.

8. Arrange for a sharing of the brigadista's field diaries and draw some general conclusions.

9. At the technical assistant level, hold at least one meeting with the brigadistas.

10. Arrange to have assistants for the community supervisors and technical advisers.

11. Set up weekly planning sessions among brigadistas, technical advisers, and community supervisors to devise class plans.

12. Inform the brigadistas about the emulation plans.

The National Literacy Crusade of Nicaragua was thus ready to swing into action on March 23, 1980. This was departure day for the thousands of volunteers travelling all over the country to reach their assignments.

Implementing the Literacy Campaign

No development education program or project is ever carried out exactly as it was planned and envisioned. Always local conditions, human differences, and unforeseen events combine to cause some changes and modifications in what was to have been done. It is a strength of the account on which this description is based that, in addition to presenting a macro-picture of the national program, the author also gives us a micro-analysis of the five month efforts in a rural community.

One of the discoveries on the local scene is that there are indigenous people ready and able to take leadership roles. One of them at this site is Doña María Elsa, a woman of many talents.

María Elsa isn't part of the central planner's design, but she knows how to help the community coordinators. When they visit her home:

> She directed the candy-making (one of her means of earning income); dug us up pieces of quisquique, a kind of wild parsnip; pressed out cheese from the container of curdled milk; made tortillas; showed off dishes she had carved from gourds - all the while keeping the chickens out of the house and rocking any of the six or seven small children. She's had seventeen, she told us; twelve were living, five dead.

Later, when they are out finding lodging for the young people who will soon arrive to start the campaign, Dona Maria Elsa is a tower of strength.

> Working on the last lodgings, she led me farther afield yet, to places we had missed in the census. I could hardly keep up with this super-woman. On she marched under the blazing sun, hatless and tireless, all the while delivering a nonstop discourse on the plants, animals, customs, geology, and history of everything and everybody.[14]

Without such local leaders any development project will falter and eventually fail. One of the chief tasks of a development educator, therefore, is to identify, seek out, and collaborate with the Doña María Elsas of this world.

It must be understood that the chief agents of the Nicaraguan Literacy Crusade were not seasoned development specialists, but adolescent youths. These young people had been uprooted from their homes, given some basic training for their job as nonformal educators, and transported out to the hinterlands. What is remarkable is not that they experienced many difficulties, but that - on the whole - they persisted in trying to meet the aims of the campaign.

Homesickness. Fear. Loneliness. Drunkeness. Sexual misbehavior. Any adult acting as the supervisor and coordinator of these youth brigades was sure to have encountered these reactions among the young brigadistas.

Our informant, Sheryl Hirshon, penned these lines in her field diary after gazing at a quotation from Che Guevara written on a wall of the village where she was working. The words quoted were, "A man who tires has the right to rest, but then he can't be called a man of the vanguard." Hirshon wrote:

Diario Del Campo

Sunday, May 25

Tired and depressed. Sorry, Che, the kid is trying to be of the vanguard, but it ain't easy. Why do they keep pestering me, as if it were my personal idea that they not go home to see their mothers?

People issuing unrealistic orders from the central offices and everyone scared to protest, until I wonder if indeed Stalinism is creeping in under the brim of Sandino's hat. Or is it just me, tired with the loss of my free Sundays and the haggling over boots that never come? Raul, with who knows how many missed classes, trips to Managua and drunken ambles through the valley, is allowed to stay on for lack of a replacement, thus destroying what little credibility we have in the disciplinary line.

Amid all this Chico comes up with the suggestion that we hold weekly meetings with the campesinos to discuss selected topics of historic and world-wide importance. Chico is wonderful, and all that, but why do none of us say to him what we say to each other: Look, a weekly political meeting is nonsense; to speak against Robelo to excess just gives him publicity. Or: I'm the only one in the whole valley, maybe in the whole municipality, who has the vaguest idea what on earth the Polisario Front, this week's selected topic, is. Estela is afraid of being called unwilling and I of being seen as a malintentioned foreigner.

So, any more complaints tonight? I think not. In the day, the plain covered with tender shoots lifts my spirits; tonight, all I can think of is the bugs. Maybe tomorrow will bring some good news.15

Mother's Day, in Nicaragua, is a festive occasion of special importance to teenagers. The highest authorities of the literacy campaign, however, have decreed that none of the brigadistas shall be allowed to travel home to be with their mothers for this holiday. Similarly, although the rainy season has begun and mud is everywhere, no boots have come for the brigadistas, although they were long ago promised. As in any development program of this magnitude, there are gaps between the thinking of the policy makers in the capital and the people who are actually carrying out the campaign in the field.

Even within the local district some tensions develop. The district coordinator wants them to adhere to the national plans, while the community supervisors perceive that aspects of the plan aren't feasible. When a brigadista misbehaves and should be sent home, this turns out to be impossible because no replacements are available. Frustrating as these conditions are, nobody should undertake a similar development project unless they are prepared to cope with them. Far from being unusual, it could be claimed that these are typical problems that development educators encounter.

If such difficulties ensued, was the Nicaraguan Literacy Campaign a failure?

Hirshon describes the campaign's conclusion.

> There was a wet scamble to El Jicaro and a last night in the ancient leather bed of Dona Chenta's. More goodbyes and more songs and speeches and parties and congratulations. The flag went up on the tower of Muy Muy. They roasted a cow for us, and we moved on to Matagalpa. Suddenly we were parading through the streets, each municipality winding into town from a separate entrance. Little by little we began to converge. We became a hundred, two hundred, a thousand, tens of thousands.
>
> We packed the main streets; we filled the stadium to bursting; we were an army of gray cotonas, worn sombreros, and muddy pants. Chickens - the last, the most precious gifts of our campesino families - hung from our belts. . .
>
> WE DID IT! All over the department, all over

> the country. We're a force, we're the EPA, and we did it! We taught 400,000 people to read. We've reduced the illiteracy rate to under thirteen percent and there'll be no stopping us now! There'll be no stopping this revolution! [16]

Putting aside the enthusiasm of that day of triumph, it is evident that the campaign did achieve worthwhile outcomes. Its long term success, in large measure, will depend on the availability of adult continuing education for the new literates. We know that the principle in basic literacy is, "Use it or loose it." Hopefully, the educational authorities of Nicaragua know this too, and will vigorously follow up the initial crusade with many types of nonformal learning opportunities. If not, much the new literates learned could be forgotten within a few years.

The campaign in Nicaragua did receive international recognition, as attested by this press release.

> "The panel of judges designated by the Director General of UNESCO to grant the 1980 prizes for distinguished and effective contribution on behalf of literacy . . . has unanimously chosen for first prize - the National Literacy Crusade of Nicaragua."
>
> UNESCO, Paris, France
> September, 1980

Discussion Questions on
The National Literacy Crusade of Nicaragua

1. Do you agree that literacy is essential if one is to become a protagonist of history rather than a spectator? If so, what must one's literacy competencies include? If not, what alternatives can take the place of basic communication and interpretative skills?

2. Is development education always a political project with pedagogical implications? In what senses is it "political?" Specifically, what are the pedagogical implications of development education projects?

3. According to its stated goals, was The National Literacy Crusade of Nicaragua a success? Explain the criteria that you used to make your assessment, and the evidence on which you based your evaluation.

4. Is it legitimate to utilize military parlance and combat imagery, as was done in Nicaragua, to popularize a national literacy program and mobilize the population in its support? Will these motifs, in your opinion, help or hinder attaining the ultimate aims of the program? Is this type of diction likely to persist in the long run, during the decades of consolidation when follow-up activities will be carried out after the conclusion of the initial crusade?

5. What do you believe were the motives of the authorities within the Sandinista National Liberation Front(FSLN) when they launched the literacy campaign so quickly after coming to power in Nicaragua?

Case Study Two

Head Start
A Child Development Program in the United States

Every year almost a million children from low-income families start school for the first time in the United States. They are likely to have had some nutritional problems. Many have never had an annual physical examination or dental checkup. Frequently they have grown up with few playthings and no children's picture books. Six year olds may never have built anything with blocks, used lego, or played with an erector set. They never experimented with finger paints or drew anything with crayons or felt tip pens. These children have had few play experiences with other children their own age. We are describing here what has been termed the culture of poverty.

Other children who begin school at the same time have a different background. They demonstrate much more self-confidence. They have always eaten well and been well clothed. They received excellent pediatric and dental care. They have had prior learning experiences at home and in the community. Some have already been to a nursery school or attended a Montessori program. Given these differences in their pre-school experiences, it is not difficult to anticipate who will be successful students and who won't. Head Start was designed twenty years ago in order to mitigate this unfair gap in the early nurturing opportunities of American children. [17]

The appropriate terms to use for the condition of children from poverty-level homes are hotly debated. Is it legitimate to identify them as being "culturally deprived?" Is there such a thing as "cultural deprivation," and if so, what, exactly, is meant by the term? Or are these children "disadvantaged," as the federal government asserts? Are they the "children of poverty?" If poverty is the culprit; is it lack of income, lack of the means of meeting basic needs, or social impoverishment that causes these children's problems? Are they "marginal" or "throw away" kids? Certainly, unless some kind of an effective intervention takes place, most of these children - regardless of what their condition is termed - will fail in school.

Facing this problem, in 1964 the federal government established a panel of experts on strategies for child development to plan a program designed to address the needs of children from poor families. Its chairperson, Dr. Robert Cooke, who at that time was the Chief Pediatrician at The Johns Hopkins Hospital in Maryland, made the observation that:

> There is considerable evidence that the early years of childhood are a most critical point in the poverty cycle. During these years, the creation of learning patterns, emotional development, and the formation of individual expectations and aspirations take place at a very rapid pace. For the child of poverty, there are clearly observable deficiencies in these processes, which lay the foundation for a pattern of failure, and thus a pattern of poverty through-out the child's entire life. 18

The panel members were determined to design an intervention program to mitigate this situation. Their report became the draft proposal for Project Head Start, which began modestly with an eight week summer program initiated by the Office of Economic Opportunity (OEO) in 1965. Children who were between three and six years of age from families whose incomes were below the poverty level formed its target constituency. The original aims of the project were to provide pre-school children from low-income families with a comprehensive program to meet their educational, emotional, health, nutritional, psychological, and social needs.

After the initial eight week pilot run, Head Start became primarily a full-year program. During the past twenty years over eight million American children and their families have participated in Head Start. Today Head Start annually enrolls 400,000 children and their families in both rural and urban areas located in all fifty states, the District of Columbia, and United States Territories overseas. Many American Indian and migrant children are taking part in its activities. The Congressional appropriation for Head Start in 1965 was $96.4 million, and this had grown to $912 million in fiscal year 1983.

Project Head Start was moved from the OEO to the Office of Child Development in the then Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (HEW) in 1969. Today it functions within the Administration for Children, Youth, and Families at the Department of Health and Human Services (HHS). The current authorization for Project Head Start was in the Omnibus Budget and Reconciliation Act of 1981, as Public Law 97-35. These funds are distributed as grants made by ten regional offices of HHS and the Indian and Migrant Programs Division located in Washington, D.C. The grants go to 1,262 community-based organizations that contract to provide appropriate programs for their constituencies. Project Head Start, therefore, is actually implemented by various community agencies, non-profit organizations, and many public school systems that must adhere to the federal guidelines.

Components of Project Head Start

Every local Head Start program has to provide the services necessary in order to effectively meet four major goals. Each is annually evaluated to be sure that these performance standards, adopted in 1975, are being achieved.

First, all Head Start programs must demonstrate that they are meeting each individual child's basic educational needs. This dimension of the program is supposed to be carried out in light of the cultural and ethnic characteristics of the community in which it is located. The children will be introduced to the concepts of words and numbers. Reading readiness will be included in their activities. They will participate in indoor and outdoor play. They will be encouraged to express their feelings in creative ways. They will be helped to develop self-confidence and the ability to get along with other people. Overall, then, the Headstart experience is intended to nurture each child's emotional, intellectual, and social growth.

When groups of children from homes where English isn't regularly spoken join Headstart, at least one of the teachers or aides must be able to speak their mother tongue. Then either bilingual education or English as a Second Language (ESL) will be a part of the Headstart program. Similarly, handicapped children, who now are over eleven percent of the total participants in Headstart, must also receive the special education that they need.

Head Start programs, for these reasons, have to maintain low ratios of teachers and aides to children. The staff must also have been well prepared in the areas of child development, and know how to cope with the typical learning problems of pre-school children.

Health is the second major target area for all Head Start programs. Here the emphasis is on the early identification of health problems and taking preventative measures. There must be four aspects of the health related activities at any local Head Start site. The children annually will receive a complete physical examination; including hearing and vision tests, a review of their immunizations, and the identification of any physical handicaps. They also all go to see a dentist to have a thorough dental examination and have any dental work done that is required.

Many of the children who come into Head Start haven't been receiving nourishing meals at home. Each program, therefore, serves at least one hot meal and a snack each schoolday, so that a minimum of one third of a child's daily nutritional needs are being met at Head Start. A nutritionist is employed at each site to plan the food to be served, recognize any special nutritional needs that the children may have, and teach parents how to select appropriate foods and prepare well balanced meals. The nutritionist may also demonstrate how to purchase nourishing food at minimum cost, and help the parents to obtain food stamps or other types of assistance if they are needed.

The fourth health aspect to receive attention at a Head Start program is mental health and psychological services. Members of the staff are always given special preparation in the psychology of early childhood. They should be able to recognize problems of emotional or social development that may arise, and can help obtain the professional services that are needed.

Parental involvement is the third major goal of Head Start programs. At each location there are opportunities for the adults to learn more about parenting, program planning for their children, and participating in the activities that are going on at the center. Local parents also have input into administrative and managerial decisions. They are frequently members of local committees and policy councils.

Workshops are arranged where parents of Head Start children can learn about educational activities that they could carry out at home. They can also study about child development and discuss family relations among parents and children. People on the staff at a Head Start program are expected to make home visits in order to observe the children in their family settings, and to counsel with the parents. Parents also either are paid or volunteer to be teacher aides, social service workers, cooks, storytellers, craft instructors, or leaders of play activities for their children.

The final major dimension of any Head Start program is social services. The parents of many Head Start children aren't able to make ends meet and can't give their children the basics that they need. In such circumstances, the social service coordinators have a responsibility to help the parents contact social agencies so that they can obtain the services that they and their children require. Similarly, the parents of handicapped children are supposed to get support from community agencies so that they can effectively help the youngster to reach his or her potential.[19]

Head Start Development

The men and women who work in Head Start programs have to be prepared to do their jobs. This is accomplished by Child Development Associate (CDA) training designed to provide them with knowledge and credentials as professionals in the child care field. CDA was initiated in 1972. The study program is planned to develop in the adults the competencies and understandings necessary in order to meet the educational, emotional, intellectual, physical, psychological, and social needs of early childhood. Thirteen pilot college and university programs were initiated in 1975 to develop a variety of curricula along these lines. The first CDA certificate was awarded in July, 1975. Now over 12,000 CDA's have earned this credential either at a CDA center or at a bilingual program where similar content is taught.

The CDA credential is now required for child care staff in twenty-seven states and the District of Columbia. Seven other states have included it in their drafts of proposed regulations. This is thus a good example of how development education policies and practices can influence professional standards and raise certification criteria.

Another variety of CDA credential in now being developed especially for social workers in Head Start and other early childhood programs. It is aimed at the people who function as home visitors. In 1985 it will also be a course of study leading to a certificate for staff workers who serve infants and toddlers, and are employed at Family Day Care centers. There are special bilingual programs located at four Early Childhood Bilingual Multicultural Resource Centers for adults who will be Head Start workers. Thirty-six Parent and Child Centers also operate in twelve rural and twenty-four urban communities across the United States. Their objectives aren't to provide for professional certification, but rather to strengthen family units, help adults to acquire good parenting skills, and to increase the parents' knowledge of their own children.

Since its inception twenty years ago, Head Start has traditionally provided all of the children from low-income families who are enrolled essentially the same five days a week, classroom based, developmental program. People in local Head Start programs are now being encouraged to consider alternatives to this approach and plan for and carry out variations of it. Options for local selection include, for example:

(1) double sessions
(2) differences in attendance patterns
(3) home-based models
(4) locally designed variations
(5) using the standard model

What has been the impact of Head Start in its twenty years of existence?

It has unquestionably played a major role in bringing national attention to bear on the critical importance of the first five years of a child's life, in the first place. Due to experiences with its millions of clients much more is now known about human development during the early childhood period.

Second, Head Start has influenced just about every other child development program in the country, whether they are under public or private auspices. Many Head Start programs, for example, applied aspects of the Montessori method, producing a whole new wave of interest in it. Due to the

stimulus of Head Start there has been a vast expansion of local and state activities for children, many more day care centers, and improved social services for young children and their families. Not all that should happen in these areas has taken place in the United States, but great progress has been made since the mid-1960's.

There was a period in the 1970's when Head Start was the brunt of critical attacks. Its opponents claimed that learning capacity is an inherited and unalterable trait. They said that interventions for only a few years during a child's pre-school years wouldn't produce any lasting effects. It was also asserted that Head Start was a waste of the taxpayers' money, and an unfair intrusion of the federal government into a domain that should be in private hands.

Evidence, however, proves that Head Start children do score significantly higher on pre-school achievement tests than do comparable children who didn't attend Head Start. It has also been demonstrated that Head Start children perform equal to or better than their peers when they enter regular schools. They have fewer grade retentions, do not need as many placements in special classes, and they are less likely to drop out of school. Many critics of Head Start have been silenced by this promising data.

Finally, a study of fifty-eight communities in which full-year Head Start programs operate showed that these had influenced other local educational and health institutions. Due to Head Start, for example, local school districts had revised their curricula to make the contents more inclusive in recognizing minority groups. Teachers and school administrators found that former Head Start parents were more active in participating in school affairs. Health organizations had changed their policies and schedules in order to serve the poor more effectively. These changes, for instance, included better prenatal care for low income prospective mothers, and "well-baby" clinics for neonates and their families. Also, employing local people from the poorer segments of the community had increased. People who were previously marginal had therefore become involved in the day-to-day operation and policy making of these organizations. These are certainly not small achievements for a relatively low cost national development project. They have caused Head Start to be closely examined by educators from many other nations for possible adaptation and implementation in their societies.[20]

Discussion Questions on
Head Start

1. What do you perceive to have been the social and political conditions in the United States that led the federal government to inaugurate Head Start in 1965? How was the policy decision made and implemented? Have the same conditions persisted over the last twenty years, or have there been major changes regarding them and Head Start?

2. If, as the Head Start advocates asserted, the early childhood years are the most critical for a person's formation and learning, then why do so many international development programs stress continuing nonformal education for adults? Do you believe, in other words, that if one's formative period didn't include adequate educational opportunities that this disadvantage can be meliorated or overcome by nonformal learning in later life?

3. Are the typical basic components of Head Start programs, in your opinion, appropriate? Which could be reduced or eliminated while maintaining overall effectiveness? What other aspects or dimensions that aren't currently in Head Start programs ought to be added? Why?

4. How convincing to you is the evidence of Head Start's positive impact? What criteria of overall effectiveness do you believe ought to be applied in order to better evaluate this program?

5. If you had unlimited power and the resources to undertake any interventions necessary in order to insure social justice and human rights in the United States, would you maintain Head Start as a component of your program? Why? Why not?

Case Study Three

Integrated Nonformal Education in Botswana

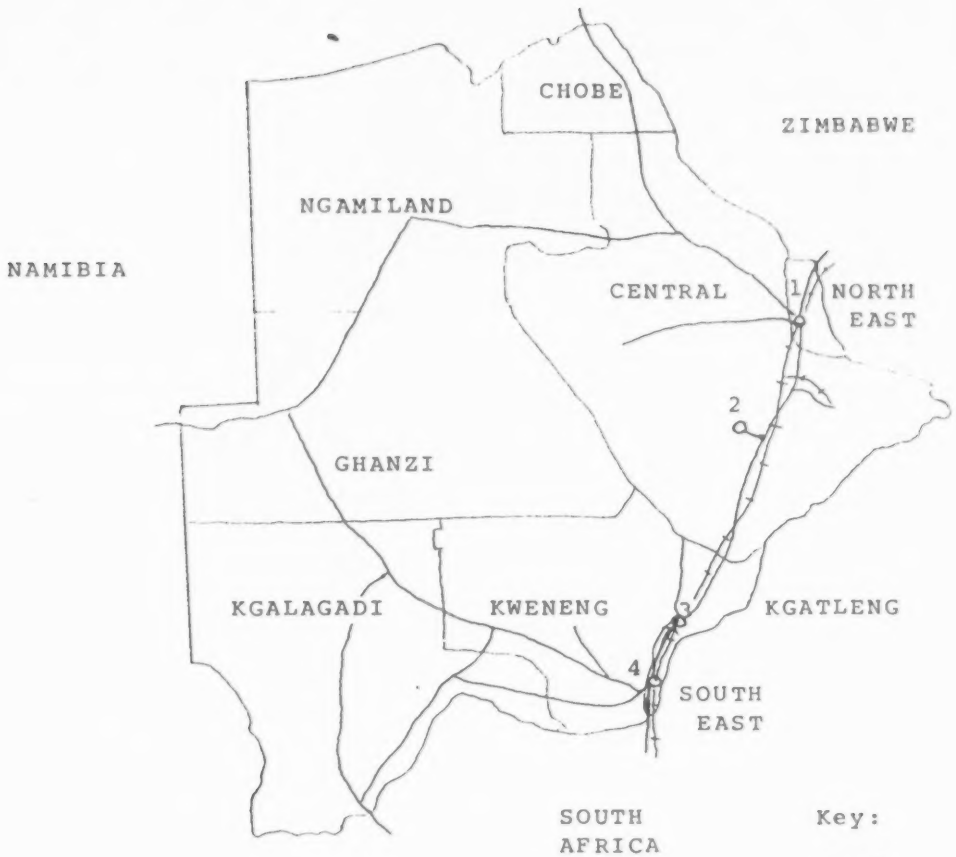
The Republic of Botswana is a sovereign and independent nation located in southern Africa. Its population in 1983 was estimated to be just over a million people. Botswana has a national territory comprising 231,804 square miles, which is roughly the same size as metropolitan France, and just a bit smaller than the State of Texas. Only one percent of this large area is arable, however.

Today's Botswana was first inhabited by bushmen and later the Bantu peoples came in. It became a British protectorate in 1866 when this colonial power wanted to block the expansion of the Boers (Africaaners) and Germans from the South and Southwest. The country achieved its independence on September 30, 1966 as a republic with a parliamentary type of democracy. Its chief of state since 1980 has been President Quett Masire.

A member of the British Commonwealth; Botswana has as its neighbors Zimbabwe, Namibia, and the Republic of South Africa. It is a landlocked country with a climate that is hot in the summer and cooler, with occasional frosts, in the winter. The wet season occurs between November and March, with a dry season in which precipitation is rare the rest of the year. The relatively small productive agricultural regions of Botswana are in the southern and eastern sections of the country. The Okavango Swamp is in the North, and the western half of the country is part of the Kalahari Desert.

Botswana's population is largely concentrated in a strip of territory along its eastern border from North to South through which passes the nation's only railroad, and the trunk highway connecting Zimbabwe and South Africa. There are a few other roads connecting towns in the districts of Kweneng, Kgalagadi, Ghanzi, Ngamiland, and Chobe; but large areas in the center and northern parts of Botswana are accessible only with four wheel drive jeeps during the dry season. As would be expected, the great majority of formal institutions of education in the country are located in its heavily populated regions. The university college, polytechnical institute, and College of Agriculture are all in or near the capital, Gaborone, a community of some 75,000

THE REPUBLIC OF BOTSWANA



Chief Towns

1 - Francistown
2 - Serowe
3 - Gaborone (capital)
4 - Lobatse

inhabitants. Other towns are Serowe, the traditional center of the Bamangwato, the most numerous tribe in Botswana, and Francistown to the North, and Lobatse to the South. These last two towns are border stations at either end of the railroad. Teacher training colleges to prepare elementary school personnel are located in all three of these last named towns.[21]

One of the important characteristics of Botswana is a demographic age spread skewed toward youths. Among Batswana, 46.1 percent are under fourteen years of age, 43.1 percent are between the ages of fifteen and fifty-nine, and only 7.4 percent are sixty years of age or older. Setswana is the national tongue, with English serving as the official language of government. There is therefore a need for bilingual education in the country. The majority of the people of Botswana adhere to traditional African religious beliefs, while about fifteen percent - usually the more prosperous town dwellers - are Christians. The per capita income among Batswana in 1978, the most recent statistics available, was $544. This helps to explain a steady labor drain of men leaving to work in South Africa.

Seventy percent of the Botswana labor force at home works in the agricultural sector of the economy. Cattle raising is extensive and the chief crops are corn (maize), sorghum, and peanuts. Botswana also produces some coal, copper, diamonds, and nickle. The country's most important other cash earner is tourism. Botswana exports sixty-seven percent of its commodities to Europe, seventeen percent to the United States, and seven percent to South Africa. Yet fully eighty-eight percent of its imports are from South Africa, creating an enormous economic dependency on this powerful southern neighbor.

Governance in Botswana is organized into nine districts and four municipalities, each of which has a local council. Life expectancy in 1975, the most recent data available, was 44.3 years for males. There were forty births per thousand population in 1978, and only thirteen deaths, producing a national increase of 2.8 percent annually. Botswana had an average of fourteen physicians per 100,000 population in 1977, or a total staff of trained doctors for the whole country of about one hundred fifty.[22]

Although Botswana has eighty percent of its young children enrolled in elementary schools, which is a good record for a Third World nation, its rate of literacy in 1983 was only thirty percent. There is also a problem of drop outs from the elementary institutions. Each year forty to fifty

percent of the children leaving elementary schools are admitted to either government or privately sponsored secondary schools. At this point, girls still about equal boys numerically in school.[23]

The British educational pattern is still adhered to in Botswana, with many more young people terminating their secondary school studies as soon as they pass their Junior Certificate examinations. Only about one third stay on to earn a General Certificate of Education, at the ordinary level. Part of the cause of this high degree of attrition is that fees must be paid for secondary education in Botswana. Both elementary and higher education, however, are free in this country. A few secondary school graduates go on to the University College of Botswana, which is a section of The University of Botswana and Swaziland. During the 1979-1980 academic year, for example, 672 Batswana undergraduates were in attendance.[24]

The National Development Plan (NDP) as devised by the experts of the Government of Botswana for 1979-1985 addressed three interrelated problems. They were poverty, unemployment, and a shortage of trained people who could act as human resources. The approach adopted is presented in this paragraph extracted from the NDP.

> Paradoxically, while there is a shortage of work for unskilled Batswana, there is a dirth of trained and skilled people without whom new jobs for the unskilled cannot be created. This problem is tackled in the Government's development strategy through the priority attached to education and training.[25]

It was evident that the formal sector of education in Botswana wasn't going to be sufficient to meet this crisis. An integrated nonformal educational effort, carried out by many government agencies and voluntary organizations, both central and local, was therefore designated to be the chief vehicle for this part of the development initiative. As defined by the NDP specialists, nonformal education is:

> . . . any organized learning outside the structure of the formal education system that

> is consciously aimed at meeting specific learning needs of particular sub-groups in the community, be they children, youths or adults.[26]

The NDP authorities also believed that effective nonformal education for Botswana must have four characteristics. First, it was to be conceived of as a core aspect of national development, with the aims and contents of its programs harmonious with the established national goals. Second, it was to be established as an overall, national service so that it would have a consistent framework within which to function. Third, all phases of it were to interface with and be an integral part of the existing national education system in order to avoid competition and costly overlap. Fourth, nonformal education was to have adequate resources and well prepared personnel in order to carry out its assignments.[27]

Exactly how the preliminary needs assessment for nonformal education in Botswana was conducted isn't explained in this report. The claim is made, however, that the NDP emphasized community development throughout the country, seeking to involve the active participation of the public. The NDP, it must be understood, is itself a centralized governmental agency where programs are planned and policies made. These designs are then mediated to the nine districts and four municipalities in the country, and implemented in local towns and villages by various cadres of extension workers. These staff people who actually carry out the programs are connected with the various arms of the national government such as agriculture, education, health and welfare, community development, remote area dwellers, wildlife; and most recently, rural industries.

The heads of the various extension agencies in each district capital or municipality are supposed to plan and coordinate all of the nonformal education activities within their jurisdiction. This, however, is more like bureaucratic negotiating than actually attempting to involve many people from their constituencies in the planning and prioritizing processes. It would be a miracle if there were no local rivalries or jockeying for more favored positions among people representing the various arms of the national government.

On the other hand, the national authorities in Botswana did organize a major public consultation in 1975. It was an occasion for interpreting proposed changes in the land tenure laws of the country, as recommended in a draft Tribal Grazing Land Policy. The aim of this campaign was to present to as many Batswana as possible the reasons for the proposed amendments. This was the legislation that would designate which parts of the tribal grazing lands could be commercial, communal or reserved areas; so it would affect just about everybody's vested interests. The problem was providing for mass coverage of the issues involved, with opportunities for responses from the public, even in the remotest parts of Botswana.

This was carried out by means of extension workers contacting the people in their local constituencies, holding Kgotla (policy consultation) meetings, having radio listening groups to hear special programs and then react to them with the help of trained discussion leaders, and having meetings to debate the issues presented over the airwaves. In all, 54,000 people participated in the consultation and radio interaction process, providing considerable input of ideas and preferences.[28]

It was believed that this experiement with participatory decision making was, in itself, a form of nonformal education. Other vehicles of nonformal education in Botswana have included an adult literacy campaign, local courses on topics such as animal husbandry, new farming techniques, conservation, handicrafts, sanitation, and wildlife management, and health or social service projects. The extension agents have made up skits and dramatizations as forms of popular theater. They sponsor 4-B (like 4-H in the United States) clubs, women's self-help organizations, and youth rallies as means of popularizing and diffusing the goals of the NDP.

Specifically, the fifth NDP in Botswana between 1979 and 1985 had five major nonformal education components, and several subsidiary ones.

Agricultural Projects

There were five aims of agricultural projects in Botswana according to the official NDP policy statement. They were to:

- Help those involved in agriculture to enjoy adequate and secure livelihoods;

- Create more such livelihoods to meet the demands of a growing labor force for employment within Botswana;

- Reduce Botswana's dependence on imports of agricultural produce, particularly food;

- Raise national income by increasing the value of agricultural production; and

- Maintain agricultural land for future generations.[29]

These goals of the Ministry of Agriculture (MOA) were implemented by interrelating programs and policies that were diffused by some two hundred paid extension workers connected with the MOA Department of Field Services. These individuals were prepared for this work at the Botswana Agricultural College, which offers both certificate and diploma courses in agriculture, animal husbandry and livestock management, and community development. MOA also has an Agricultural Information Service that designs and produces extension materials and helps to conduct educational campaigns.

The programs to be provided in connection with the NDP included livestock development, improved range and livestock management, twenty-five fenced cattle ranches at Ncojane, and eleven karakul sheep runs near Bokspits. There were also other sheep and goat projects, a poultry development activity, and a pig production unit at Broadhurst. Dairying was to be stimulated by research on better breeding methods, and two cooperatively run dairies at Mmadinare and Gaborone were to be opened.

Other agricultural nonformal education efforts involved setting up a fishing group on Lake Ngami, carrying out a horticultural experiment to increase vegetable production in the villages of eastern Botswana, and beginning a seed dissemination center headquartered in Sebele. The agricultural extension workers also were able to make small "improvement grants" to farmers who wanted to apply proven methods of

increasing small scale water supplies. There was an irrigation project in Ngamiland involving growing rice there. A forestry unit worked to form an exotic woodland plantation in the Matcheng area in order to furnish villagers with building materials and give them a replenishable fuel supply.[30]

Commerce and Industry

The Ministry of Commerce and Industry (MCI) implemented nonformal education projects designed to:

- Increase the number of worthwhile employment opportunities for Batswana, particularly in rural areas;
- Increase Botswana's economic independence by promoting Batswana involvement in trade and production, and by diversifying sources of capital and skills;
- Diversify the economy as the basis of balanced long term economic growth; and,
- Protect the interests of consumers and workers.[31]

The work of the MCI was implemented by its rural industrial officers based in the nation's nine district centers. They tried to establish and support small scale local industries, originally within "estates" which are development areas located near towns, but subsequently also by providing some services to entrepreneurs in villages. Through Botswanacraft these officers were able to encourage local craftsmen to make objects for tourists and for export. The "Partnership for Productivity" program provided advice and training for people with small businesses. Wildlife also comes under MCI in Botswana, and its agents recruited some 230 trained game scouts, prepared for their work at the Maun Wildlife Training Center. The scouts lead wildlife observation and photography safaris for visitors to Botswana, thus making it possible for the nation's animal resources to be income producing.

Related to wildlife preservation and appreciation in Botswana is a popular weekly radio program entitled, "Tshomarelo Dipholoholo" (Preserving Wildlife), which is broadcast

to the rural areas, both in order to educate the general public and also to give information to the local authorities. A Wildlife Education Reserve was established near Gaborone for teaching and touristic purposes. Wildlife utilization and industries that are based on wildlife resources are being encouraged in Botswana through, for example, some game culling that provides hunting expeditions for visitors, domestication of certain species, and labor intensive activities such as procuring and tanning hides.[32]

Education

The Ministry of Education (MOE) through agencies such as its Department of Nonformal Education (DNFE) and brigades was directed to implement four development goals.

- Increase educational opportunities, and reduce inequalities of educational opportunities, so far as resources permit;

- Contribute to the balanced economic development of Botswana by seeking to satisfy manpower requirements for all sectors, emphasizing particularly the needs of rural development and employment generation;

- Promote personal qualities such as respect for national ideals, self-reliance, and concern for other people, and encourage full development of individual talents; and,

- Extend the role of schools and colleges in the local community, and vice-versa.[33]

MOE undertook its development tasks by working through the DNFE, which was established in 1978. It includes the Botswana Extension College which offers correspondence courses and distance teaching to people who are deprived of formal education, especially in the remote rural sections of the country. An Institute of Adult Education provides a two-year tertiary program and in-service training to grown-ups by using Radio Botswana, the brigades, and many other agencies. The brigades are training and production cooperatives for the building up of trades, business management, and developing

skills such as carpentry, draftsmanship, forestry, handicrafts, and textile production.

A major initiative of MOE was the Botswana National Literacy Program, begun in 1980, which aimed at eradicating illiteracy in the country by 1985. During the first year when a pilot program was being tested out, 15,000 people were to be taught basic skills. Then the numbers would be increased by about 50,000 people a year, until the goal of a literate society was attained. Each person in the program was to receive twelve months of literacy instruction, so it was a more intensive effort with longer contact with the new literates than the Nicaraguan Literacy Crusade.

Women's education was promoted by the "Ditiro tsa Ditlhabololo" scheme which offered leadership training and provided suitable program materials to local women's organizations. There were also district and village activities involving the participation of women.[35]

Health

The development planners regard people as Botswana's prime resource. In order for them to be happy and productive, of course, the citizens of Botswana must be healthy. The nation's major health problems, according to the authorities, are caused by poverty and the climate. Intestinal, respiratory, and skin infections result from:

- insufficient and poor nutrition.
- insufficient and unclean water supplies.
- lack of proper sanitation.
- poor housing, and,
- lack of knowledge about nutrition and personal hygiene, about the collection, storage and use of water, and about the disposal of human waste and refuse. [36]

According to the NDP, overcoming these problems depends on nonformal education given by agents of the Ministry of

Health (MH) such as the people connected with a Health Education Unit and more than four hundred Family Welfare Educators. The nation's doctors and nurses are also involved with giving nonformal education to their patients.

The other thrust of the health promotion campaign of the MH is primary health care, by which is meant providing promotive, preventative, curative, and rehabilitative services. This sector functions through village health committees that are to plan and manage local care. There is also a program of building and monitoring the safety of village water supplies. The health officers are active in providing maternal and infant care, as well as family planning. There is a nutrition unit to bring better food habits to rural constituencies; and a program to control communicable diseases such as bilharzia, malaria, sleeping sickness, and tuberculosis. Children continue to be immunized against infectious diseases. Another national program seeks to prevent and treat blindness. Dental health is another goal, especially functioning through preventative programs for the nation's children; and there is a social services and rehabilitation program for the handicapped.[37]

Local Government and Lands

The Ministry of Local Government and Lands (MLGL) is concerned with two major challenges.

- to strengthen the capacity of local government, first to provide development leadership, second to operate existing services efficiently, and third to expand such services.

- to overcome urban bias and to build on the relationships between different rural and urban settlements by developing a balanced national investment strategy.[38]

There are MLGL extension workers who labor to carry out this agenda. They implement an "Environmental Sanitation and Protection Program" in order to help villagers avoid waterborne diseases, correctly prepare and store food, and have good personal hygiene. There is a program of Self Help Housing Agencies (SHHA) which operates through the Town

Councils in order to provide shelter for the poorest people in the urban population. These were previously understaffed and poorly equipped and financed, but during the NDP were to be strengthened through technical assistance and staff training. There is also a considerable effort being made to create employment and income earning opportunities for dwellers of the remote areas of the country. In many cases, these are "marginal households" isolated from the mainstream of national productivity. They are to receive instruction in appropriate farming activities, handicrafts, and in collecting and selling wild herbs and plants.

The MLGL authorities describe this organization as an "umbrella ministry." It has an important function in coordinating and interfacing the many inter-ministry programs in Botswana. Also, MLGL addresses difficult problems that don't come within the responsibilities of any other ministry, such as helping people who live in the remote areas of the country where few other services are available.[39]

Other Projects

There are also some other projects in Botswana that utilize nonformal education. One of these is the Botswana National Library Service which has mobile libraries and a book box service for rural primary schools. The National Museum and Art Gallery provides exhibits on the history and contemporary life of Botswana both for the nation's citizens and also for tourists. It also has a mobile service involving small, portable displays, films, and lectures. There is a National Service Scheme which is supposed to place young people who have completed Form Five in rural areas to help cope with the practical problems of village development. There was to be a population and housing census conducted in 1981.

Finally, the Botswana Department of Information and Broadcasting is the chief means used by the Government to inform, educate, and consult with the public. The ideal, at least, is not only to present and defend official policies; but also to provide opportunities for criticism, discussion, and debate. Thus, this arm of the state is a primary means of providing nonformal education.[40]

Discussion Questions on Integrated Nonformal Education in Botswana

1. In light of the realities of conditions in the Republic of Botswana, in your opinion was integrated nonformal education the optimum approach to employ for national development there? If so, what is your basis for making this judgment? Explain your logic and supporting evidence. If not, what alternative strategies would you recommend? Explain your rationale for them.

2. Frequently, as was the case in Botswana, national development programs involve the participation of many different arms of government and various voluntary agencies. How do you think that the resulting issues of coordination and prioritizing can best be resolved? Do you advocate the centralization or the devolution of authority to make and implement policies?

3. What is the appropriate role, as you perceive it, of external specialists and funding from other governments, international organizations, and philanthropic foundations in a national development program such as the one in Botswana?

4. How would you, as an international development education expert, evaluate the outcomes and effectiveness of the integrated nonformal education program between 1979 and 1985 in the Republic of Botswana? What inquiry methodologies would you employ? What types of data and information would you need to have?

5. Does Botswana's location on the northern border of the Republic of South Africa, and its economic dependency on this larger and wealthier white-ruled nation, have any impact on its development policies and aims, in your opinion? How might nonformal education be affected in Botswana by the South African realities next door?

Case Study Four

The Sarvodaya Shramadana Movement of Sri Lanka

The Democratic Socialist Republic of Sri Lanka is a nation of 15,300,000 people located on an island in the Indian Ocean off the southeast coast of India. This island was known to the ancients as Taprobane, the Greek word for copper-colored, or later was called Serendip, from Arabic. Almost three-fourths of the population are descended from the Buddhist Sinhalese, while Hindu people from the Tamil speaking areas of southern India are today about eighteen percent of Sri Lanka's population. There is also a small, seven percent, minority of Moors, Muslims of Asian and Middle Eastern ancestry. According to religious persuasion, Sri Lankans today are sixty-nine percent Buddhists, fifteen percent Hindus, and seven percent each Christians and Muslims.

Sri Lanka had a long colonial experience going back to 1505 when the Portuguese occupied parts of the island. The Dutch arrived in 1658, followed by the British in 1796. The English name for the island was Ceylon, and it was under this name that it became an independent part of the British Commonwealth in 1948. Ceylon then declared itself to be the Republic of Sri Lanka on May 22, 1972. It is a parliamentary democracy administered through twenty-four districts from the capital, Colombo, a city of almost a million and a half people.

The coastal area and the northern half of Sri Lanka are flat, while the south central part of the country is hilly and mountainous. Over seventy-eight percent of Sri Lankans live in rural areas, and only 21.5 percent are urban dwellers. Reflecting this settlement pattern, the national labor force is forty-six percent employed in agriculture, twenty-nine percent work in commerce or industry, and nineteen percent are in service occupations. The crux of development for this society, therefore, is in the agrarian sector located in its villages.

The per capita income of Sri Lankans in 1981 was $266. Fourteen percent of the country's commodities were exported to the United States, and seven percent to the United Kingdom in 1983. Its imports came primarily from Japan (fifteen percent), Saudi Arabia (oil, twelve percent), and the United Kingdom (seven percent). A pattern of trading relations can therefore be identified, by means of which Sri Lanka must earn enough foreign exchange to purchase the imports that it needs.

Sri Lanka has compulsory education until the age of twelve, and eighty-four percent of the school-aged children are reportedly enrolled in school. The national literacy rate is quite high, also eighty-four percent. At birth the life expectancy of Sri Lankans is sixty-eight years, according to 1983 data. Births per thousand in 1981 were twenty-eight; deaths, six. Infant mortality was thirty-seven per thousand live births in 1983 - fairly high, but better than some central city statistics in the United States. The natural increase of Sri Lanka's population, as calculated in 1978, was 1.7 percent, which is fairly low.[41]

The Sarvodaya Movement was begun in 1958 by some teachers and students from Nalando College in Colombo, led by T.A. Ariyaratne. It was their conviction that the revitalization of Sri Lanka as an autonomous and self-sufficient nation required village development. Their original aim was to understand the lifestyle, customs and needs of the Buddhist Sinhalese villagers by living among them. None of their efforts have ever been directed toward the Hindu Tamil minority living in the northern part of the island. They first went to Kanatholuwa, a low-caste village, to find out about the cultural, economic, religious, and social dimensions of rural life in their homeland.

Sarvodaya Shramadana is a non-governmental, nonformal participatory process which is based on Buddhist teachings, the concepts developed by Mohandas K. Gandhi and Vinobha Bhave in India, and the local Sri Lankan folk traditions of cooperative action and shared labor for community improvement. There is much interest in Sarvodaya Shramadana among international development educators because it is largely an indigenous movement that isn't based on western models. The name of the movement means, "universal awakening through sharing energy, thought, and time."

At Kanatholuwa the volunteers learned to mobilize the village youth who could in turn obtain cooperation from their elders in order to implement self-identified projects. The teachers and students from the city worked side by side with the villagers to level roads, construct houses, and build sanitary toilets. Their approach to rural transformation emphasizes service to self and others, universal respect for life, and physical vigor. These qualities are to be joined with psychological and spiritual health.

The ideology of Sarvodaya Shramadana is focused on the

> . . . emphasis placed on the spiritual and moral aspects of development at every level - the individual, the community, the nation, and the world.[42]

The original aims of the Movement, as expressed in 1958, were:

> . . . to develop the personality of youths in keeping with culture and with rapid changes;
>
> to awaken communities to social change and to their own role as agents of change, in relation to cultural and ethical values;
>
> to achieve national integration through openness to all, based on Buddhist principles, human rights and social justice; and,
>
> to achieve worldwide collaboration.[43]

Inquiries conducted in 1979 and 1980 probed the actual field practices of the development educators connected with the Sarvodaya Movement. The investigators wanted to find out if practices coincided with rhetoric.

The observers saw that the first activities in the villages were always aimed at renewing pride in traditional cultural observances and institutions. There would be a revival of Sinhalese New Year celebrations, for example, and the local Buddhist temple would be renovated. The Movement was able to carry on its program by involving local individuals, such as monks, priests, and teachers who occupied time honored leadership roles. The goal, therefore, was never to displace the local elite. Progress and modernization were not to be achieved at the expense of Buddhist morality and values.

The Sarvodaya field workers would usually be invited to visit a village by its elders. These local leaders might have heard about the Movement through its work in nearby communities, by reading newspaper articles about it, or by hearing it mentioned on radio programs. Actually, the observers discovered, in some cases Sarvodaya representatives might have

previously made an informal visit to the village to acquaint its people with the Movement. The basic principle, however, remains that Sarvodaya will enter a village in order to undertake development there only when invited by and in collaboration with the villagers. The idea is that there is no standard development program, but in each location Sarvodaya will work to meet the locally perceived needs.

The very first activity after getting acquainted with one another is for the Sarvodaya workers and the villagers to undertake a very informal needs assessment. The conversation will concern a tangible problem that could be solved by working together, such as rehabilitating a public building, constructing a road, or mending a water tank or reservoir. Labor intensive, low cost, highly visible projects that address generally recognized problems in the village are the starting point.

When pride in the indigenous culture and success at carrying out several practical projects have been demonstrated, the program moves into its third phase. Now the village leaders and the Sarvodaya field workers will plan and carry out a voluntary work camp to tackle some larger problem. This is a more advanced form of Shramadana for which the villagers will mobilize their own resources. They will be reinforced by people and materials from other nearby villages, and the Sarvodaya youth from towns and cities.

Workcamps usually function over an extended weekend or during a school holiday. They involve the hosts and the outside volunteers doing physical labor together for six to eight hours a day. Three or four additional hours are set aside for education through various cultural activities such as dance, drama, and song. Performances will involve all of the villagers and their guests. Discussions among all of the participants are also a typical aspect of the workcamps, which are similar in many ways to those sponsored by the Religious Society of Friends (Quakers).

These voluntary work and expressive activities are characterized by a high level of commitment, order, and self-discipline. One of their chief values is certainly to make it feasible for urban young people in Sri Lanka to have some positive learning experiences in the rural areas of their own country. Also, these workcamps do empower the villagers,

giving them the opportunity and resources to accomplish projects that would exceed their capacity alone. The cultural aspects of the workcamps reinforce the villagers' knowledge and pride regarding their ethnic heritage. This had been greatly undermined during the colonial occupation, so it needs to be restored.

The fourth phase of the Sarvodaya Movement in a local village is forming indigenous action groups. These are designed to become the vehicles for future community development activities. They might include youth clubs, a cooperative association for marketing village crops and products, and a women's organization to strengthen skills in child care, homemaking, and nutrition.

The rationale of this phase is that it is necessary to nurture popular participation in desireable efforts to achieve village progress. The goal is to create a mutual support network involving many people, rather than to produce new wealth for only a few hard working entrepreneurs. The ideology, therefore, is democratic socialist rather than competitive free enterprise. This, of course, is in harmony with Buddhist principles. The newly formed voluntary groups, it is claimed, will produce a new generation of rural leadership who will not be alien to the village society. They are supposed to know how to function within the sociopsychological milieu of rural Sri Lanka. This is a gradual, gentle, long-range type of movement for change, rather than a radical revolutionary approach.

The Sarvodaya Shramadana Movement now has full programs functioning in four hundred Sri Lankan villages, and carries out activities in almost three thousand localities. It has prepared and employs about six thousand full-time development workers, who are reaching over ten percent of the rural population of the country. As a result many agricultural, child care, credit, educational, handicraft, health, nutrition, and sanitation projects have been carried out. This is a remarkably diffused impact for any non-official, voluntary agency to have achieved anywhere in the world.

There are some concerns about the effectiveness of the Sarvodaya Movement, however. As always, it is necessary to examine how well the theory actually works out in practice.

The articulated goal of the Movement is to restructure the people's thinking and realign relationships in the villages by applying nonviolent intervention strategies. The traditional village elite, rather than being forcibly supplanted or removed, are to be changed enough that they are willing to share initiatives and decision-making power with more of the villagers. This is the basic objective for forming local voluntary organizations.

Actually, however, ethnographic studies among the Sri Lankan villagers indicate that even after an extended Sarvodaya experience, more than half of the informants still say that they look to outsiders or the conventional leaders of the village to identify local problems and take steps to solve them. The nexus of the development problem seems to be successfully transferring the initiative in village improvement projects from the external catalyzers and local elite to a broadly based local constituency.

> Village activities are initiated and sustained by an alliance of the Sarvodaya worker . . . and the village monk or priest. When this external leadership is removed the village program often loses vitality or continues in a somewhat moribund fashion. Rarely do the institutional capacities in the village community itself develop sufficiently to take over and run the program.[44]

The problem may be caused by the fact that the Sarvodaya workers, looking for potential youth leaders in the villages, tended to work with unemployed young people. These individuals, although they aren't gainfully employed, actually have attained an average education, some income, and a relatively good social status. The Sarvodaya program, therefore, isn't reaching the hard core poor of rural Sri Lanka. The totally unschooled and jobless elderly, for example, seldom participate in the development projects.

It seems that the positive effects of the projects, then, are on the middle and top of the village social pyramid. They fail to do much that will change conditions for the poverty stricken villagers at its base. Possibly, it simply takes much longer for community development efforts to penetrate down to the most disadvantaged people in the society. On the other hand, the Sarvodaya Movement has been going on for more than twenty years.

It seems, in any case, that Sarvodaya basically leaves the traditional village elite in place. There will be some tangible projects accomplished that do mitigate the problems of some of the villagers. But the intervention makes few long term changes in the basic rural social structure of Sri Lanka.

A major activity undertaken by the workers in the Sarvodaya Movement is providing training programs for Sri Lankan villagers. There is some criticism, however, of the contents of these short term, intensive courses. It was estimated, for example, that twenty-one percent of the time was devoted to teaching an awareness of the Sarvodaya philosophy and practices. Thirteen percent was for developing interpersonal skills, and eleven percent for "mode of life" training. Thus, forty-five percent of the training, it seems, was rather theoretical. The question arises how much of this content was of immediate relevance to the villagers. Also, in order to participate in any Sarvodaya training program, the villager must be able to read and write. This requirement virtually excludes the most handicapped segment of the rural population.

It seems that in order to attract voluntary support from its Buddhist backers and justify its existence, that the leaders of the Sarvodaya Movement feel compelled to stress attractive, pious, and successful projects. They build preschools, which can be named for generous donors, for example, rather than developing nameless sport programs for idle village youth. The Shramadana work camps, which involve town and city people, are stressed much more than efforts to identify and encourage potential leaders among the villagers, themselves.

Agricultural projects with the current rural landlords are frequent, while few tangible efforts seem to be made to help the landless poor. These policies may well be necessary in order to sustain the Movement, but they mean that the basic decisions are being made in Colombo, or at the Movement's headquarters at Meth Medura. If this is so, then the Sarvodaya Movement really isn't as much a "grass roots" program as its advocates like to claim. As its critics assert, it may have become a "self-sustaining myth" with theories that are quite different than its practices. Does it actually inculcate self-reliance in the villages, or are the villagers merely being brought into new forms of external dependency?

These same queries that we are raising about the Sarvodaya process in Sri Lanka must be asked about any educational development project.

1. Are there any lasting changes in community power relationships as a result of the development intervention?

2. Does the education and training provided actually equip the clients to develop into skilled, employable workers and effective local community leaders?

3. Are the projects being undertaken appropriate for reaching the target constituencies - especially people who are impoverished and unemployed?

4. If self-help and self-reliance are the declared aims of the project, after the people's awareness and aspirations have been aroused, are the necessary economic development potentialities present so that the process will not be stalled and turn into a cruel hoax?

Discussion Questions on
The Sarvodaya Shramadana Movement of Sri Lanka

1. How are Buddhist beliefs and principles reflected in the approaches to community development adopted by the Sarvodaya workers? Are there, in your opinion, alternative processes that would be equally consistent with Buddhism, but more effective in revitalizing the villages?

2. Should Sarvodaya Shramadana be assessed only on the basis of its impact on the poorest people in Sri Lankan villages, or do you think that its education of city and town youths about the realities of rural life in their country, as well as giving some new ideas to the rural elite, are also valuable outcomes of the project? If educating the urban young people and having an impact on the traditional leaders of the villages are among the Movement's aims, are weekend workcamps the best means of accomplishing these goals?

3. Sarvodaya Shramadana aspires to being a universal movement that inspires global cooperation and has an impact on all regions of the world. Due to ethnic tensions in the North, however, it has not been able to address the needs of the Tamil minority in Sri Lanka. How, in your opinion, could its ultimate, broad agenda best be carried out? Is such an inclusive program feasible? What implications do you foresee in terms of interfaith relations, creating a network of cooperating voluntary associations, and getting along with national governments and international agencies?

4. How could the Sarvodaya Shramadana processes be adapted for implementation in your own community and its schools? Assess its appropriateness or inappropriateness in such a different cultural setting.

Chapter Eight

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Chapter Eight

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A GLOSSARY OF TERMS FREQUENTLY USED BY INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT EDUCATORS

Compiled by Frank A. Stone

1. absorptive capacity - the amount of resources that a community, institution or society can effectively utilize within a given period of time.

2. adult education - opportunities for general rather than specific vocational/technical training provided to citizens after the school leaving age. Some other terms that are used for similar processes are: continuing education, further education, lifelong education, education permanente, recurrent education and popular education.

3. aid - programs of assistance and support offered by an institution to individuals; a local, regional or national government to school systems or educational organizations; or transfers through binational or multinational agreements from donors to recipients through allotments, appropriations, grants or providing technical know-how in order to further educational goals.

4. appropriate technology - methods, techniques or machines that function effectively within a particular social context without causing undue distortions or difficulties.

5. aspirations - the sum of an individual's ambitions for the future, which in educational usage are usually perceived as academic, occupational (career), or social; and are concerned with performance, prestige or status goals.

6. assistance - taking part in or collaborating with a program or project by contributing financial, material, personnel or technical support to it.

7. basic education - the fundamental knowledges, skills and understandings that are regarded as being necessary in order to get along, be productive, and exercise one's rights and responsibilities as a citizen in a particular society.

8. bilingualism - the ability to use two languages fluently, either as co-mother tongues when they have been learned at about the same age, or when one of the tongues was acquired as a second language after the first one.

9. brain drain - the departure of highly educated professionals from localities or countries where they feel hindered for places that offer them greater incentives in the form of bigger challenges, better working conditions or higher remuneration. There are often "brain drains" internally within a nation, as well as among nations.

10. career education - comprehensive programs of learning in which occupational options are systematically investigated through actual or simulated work experiences so that the students have a basis for making wise decisions regarding their life work from childhood through the adult years.

11. community - "a wide grouping of people, located within fairly recognizable boundaries and related to each other by social, economic, and civil activities which produce cohesiveness sufficient to develop a history and recognizable identity." School and Community. Paris: CERI, OECD, Volume II, 1980, p. 12.

12. community development education - activities and processes of an educational nature that are undertaken by local people, embodying the principles of self-help, in order to improve the conditions in their town, village or neighborhood.

13. compensatory education - instructional programs whose ultimate objective is equalizing the performance of the entire population attending school by improving the experience of those who have previously been disadvantaged or deprived.

14. "completed" students - learners who have completed the prescribed course of study at any level in an educational system and received a certificate, credential, diploma or degree attesting to this fact. For every "completed" student there will be non-finishers who attended school but were not graduated for various reasons. The efficiency of a school system, borrowing a methodology from production management, is sometimes assessed by measuring the proportions of its "completed" and "incomplete" products in the form of students.

15. conscientization - education aimed at increasing the learners' awareness of their situation and the conditions under which they are living in a socio-economic system. The goal is then to empower these marginal citizens so that they can improve their lot.

16. convivial society - a social system that fulfills human needs for companionship, in the quality and variety of contacts that it makes possible and the dependability and constancy of the relationships that it provides.

17. critical size - the point at which the numbers involved are sufficient to make a process cost effective, after which the problems experienced with that aggregation are created by its proportions rather than as the direct result of bureaucratic, human or institutional shortcomings.

18. curriculum - all of the contents and instructional processes that are involved in a learning program, those elements that are planned and intentional, as well as those that are unintentional or the "hidden curriculum."

19. custodial function - the care and nurture that is provided to children or youths in schools or non-formal programs freeing their parents or other family members for productive employment or leisure, while keeping the young people out of the labor market and under surveillance. Many societies regard this aspect of schooling as in loco parentis; in other words, professional educators are conceived of as acting on behalf of and in place of the child's parents.

20. deschooling - a movement whose advocates contend that conventional schools are archaic, function to preserve the privileges of the elite, and ought to be replaced by self-mediating learning opportunities such as media centers and mentors available to all.

21. development - efforts to move from a condition that is regarded as less than satisfactory toward one that is closer to being optimum through planned change or growth.

22. development education - comprehensive studies about the options that are available for improving the cultural, economic, political or social conditions of a community, region, nation or the globe. Development education includes analyzing the theoretical rationales of development programs, becoming more aware of development needs, planning development action, implementing projects, and evaluating their impact.

23. development studies - specific investigations of the cultural, economic, political, social and technological problems and issues being encountered in societies in which people are trying to improve the conditions of life.

24. devolution - a form of bureaucratic decentralization in which some basic policy making and implementation authority is relocated outside of the central agencies in the national capital or downtown headquarters to regional centers or sites in outlying areas. It is the opposite of consolidating authority and power.

25. education permanente - extra-school, life-long learning opportunities as they have been developed in Cuba and other societies influenced by the Cuban model.

26. educational production function - "EPF is used to determine the maximum product which can be derived from a given combination of inputs within the existing state of technical knowledge." John Simmons, ed. The Education Dilemma. Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1980, p. 78.

27. educational reconstruction - thoughtfully taking apart and then restructuring institutions and programs of learning in order to make them more humane and relevant to desirable social changes and justice.

28. elite - any leadership that wields power or authority based on its prestige, economic advantage, superior knowledge or social position. There are various kinds of elites that function in different ways: managerial elites, military elites, political elites, and intellectual elites. Some of them may be relatively open to access by providing types of upward mobility based on merit and performance. Others are closed systems.

29. enterprise zones - specially designated areas in a city or country in which commercial and industrial entrepreneurs are given abatements of regulations and/or tax incentives by the government in order to attract them to locate there and employ local residents in their operations. Puerto Rico's "Operation Bootstrap" was based on the enterprise zone concept, as have been several projects undertaken recently in Connecticut's cities.

30. external productivity - the relationship between the cumulative benefits derived from an educational system over a period of time, and the cost of the corresponding inputs that were earlier used in order to produce them.

31. factor costs - the sub-sections of financial, human resource and material expenditures used to provide the various sectors of an educational system such as floorspace, administration, supervision, instructional media, and places for students.

32. fotonovela - pictures and captions arranged to narrate a story that can communicate development concepts to a broad population.

33. functional literacy - the ability to read and write at about what is considered to be the average proficiency for fourth and fifth grade students in that society. This is a relative concept, geared to the minimum cognitive and communicative skills that will meet all of the individual's normal daily needs.

34. green revolution - increased agricultural production due to using better fertilizers, improved seed and stock, and the application of other farming techniques such as drainage and irrigation. Unfortunately, its costs have frequently restricted the green revolution to affluent landowners and agri-businesses.

35. Harambee School Movement - a program of village revitalization in Kenya based on indigenous African values.

36. headstart - preschool learning programs for disadvantaged children funded under entitlement by the United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education (now the Department of Education). The long-term impact of headstart programs has been much debated.

37. human capital theory - a rationale for investing in upgrading the knowledge, skills and understandings of human beings so that they will be better able to contribute to economic development and produce a more equitable distribution of income. This is a concept of how to establish investment priorities in order to increase the social well-being most in the long run.

38. imperfect development - infelicities when a program or project fails to produce the promised results, as anticipated and desired. To some extent, every undertaking will be "imperfect development" because none is ever a panacea and there are always "trade-offs" in which gains are countered by losses. Hopefully, the overall outcome of a development effort is an improvement over the prior conditions.

39. informal education - learning that takes place naturally within one's family and peer group; or that takes place through relatively unplanned interpersonal and intergroup processes within the community.

40. internal efficiency - the relationship between the outputs (effects) of a system and the corresponding inputs that were required in order to produce them.

41. language maintenance - keeping up fluency in a minority tongue within a given social context, especially when it is not used for formal instruction in the schools or as the vehicle of political communication as an "official" language of the government. Examples are French in the western provinces of Canada, and Gaelic in Highland Scotland.

42. LDC or LDS - less developed country or less developed society. This is the designation used by the United Nations for nations or societies in which the gross national product is less than $500 per capita and a modern type of industrial infrastructure doesn't exist.

43. legitimization - the process of achieving credibility for a development policy, program or project by exercising persuasion, coercion or authority. Public relations campaigns are often a form of legitimization.

44. manpower planning - forecasting or projecting the future human resources needs of a community, sector of the society, or nation in order to meet them by preparing people with the requisite knowledges, skills and talents. The term "manpower" refers to humanity generically, not only to the male gender. Women are often the focus of human resources development plans.

45. meritocracy - a system in which it is claimed that authority and power are achieved purely on the basis of demonstrated ability and achievement - not one's ancestry or socio-economic position.

46. metropole economies - the "center" industrial and post-industrial powers located largely in modern societies in the northern hemisphere as contrasted with the "peripheral" or "satellite" economies of the southern hemisphere and eastern Europe. In parallel, there is "metropole education" which is the dominant schooling system of the colonial powers, in contrast to the indigenous educational practices of the outlying states. According to the proponents of the metropole model, there is a constant surplus drain from the periphery toward the metropolitan center. In education this functions as the movement of students to the metropolitan institutions and the subsequent "brain drain."

47. misschooled - people who are unable to find employment in the field for which they were prepared in an educational institution.

48. model cities - an urban renewal program in the United States that was funded by the federal government in the 1960's and 1970's.

49. modern - "the form of civilization that is characteristic of our current (dominant) historical epoch. Economic modernity is typified by the intense application of scientific technology, inanimate sources of energy instead of animal power, high degrees of labor specializations, the interdependence of impersonal markets, large scale financing, the concentration of decision making, and rising levels of material well-being. A process of change in which ways of perceiving, expressing and valuing are altered toward a stress on individual functioning, an emphasis on empirical and rational evidence, and a disposition to act in certain ways." Alex Inkeles and David H. Smith, Becoming Modern. (Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1974), pp. 15-16.

50. non-formal education - alternative types of planned learning and training that take place outside of schools, are relatively less institutionalized and therefore more flexible than formal schooling, and are open to all. Non-formal education is usually directed toward adult learners and sometimes utilizes media such as drama, radio or television.

51. obsolescence - falling into disuse, regarded as archaic, or becoming no longer the most efficient variety.

52. oligarchy - decision making and rule by a minority. Often these privileged few are prepared in exclusive institutions of learning, and maintain their power by selecting only their own kind to participate in policy formation.

53. 'open' system - educational programs that are available to all qualified applicants within a category of people with little or no screening by means of standardized achievement or aptitude testing, or other selection procedures. The other end of the spectrum is a highly competitive system in which many tests and requirements are applied to make it 'closed' to all but a few. Open education can also refer to the free arrangement of space, much movement within the learning place, lack of grading, greater curriculum flexibility, and more varied methods of instruction.

54. overdeveloped - societies with high affluence and huge amounts of mass consumption that are post-industrial in their means of production and experiencing problems of pollution, imbalance, economic stagflation, and turbulence caused by social injustices.

55. over-qualified - applicants for positions whose formal education greatly exceeds the requirements of the job description. Employers often refuse to hire this type of individual fearing that they will become dissatisfied, that they may become agitators who organize the other workers, or that they will demand higher remuneration.

56. paucity of savings - the condition of insufficient capital being locally available for use in development investment. It may be caused by an actual lack of cash surplus or may be caused by a preference for other types of investment, such as buying precious metals or real estate.

57. personal costs of education - the total investment that individuals have made in obtaining their learning through the effort that they expended, the time deployed, the possible income lost in the interim, their inability to help with their family's work load, and the funds that were directly or indirectly spent on education by themselves or their families. The other large domain of educational costs is social - in other words, the investment for education made from public funds raised from taxes or loans.

58. philosophy - all of a person's educational beliefs and commitments that form their ideology of learning and teaching; or the stated mission of an educational system or institution - its aims and objectives.

59. policy - a general statement of the action, type of conduct, or management approach - based on principles or a rationale - that will be pursued under particular circumstances. In other words, policies are declarations of institutional or personal dispositions.

60. policy formation - decision making processes that include assessing alternative options, negotiating differences, making and justifying choices, articulating the chosen position, implementing and evaluating it.

61. policy studies - inquiries and investigations into institutional and organizational decision making in order to better understand the processes involved and assess their results.

62. population education - the transmission of knowledge about demographic changes and characteristics, along with nurturing better understanding about the causes of population fluctuations and their social and personal consequences. Family planning and birth control techniques may be taught in conjunction with population education.

63. progress - aspects that are regarded as improvements in the socio-economic and technological dynamics of a social system because they confer greater opportunities and more mobility on human beings.

64. recurrent education - a learning system that provides for reentry into formal educational programs for those who left school at any point earlier in their careers. It is based on the revolving door model where people can enter and leave schools throughout their lives more easily.

65. revolution - a radical turnover in the power structure of a society in which an old elite or technology is displaced by a new one with a greater or lesser amount of violence and social upheaval. Euphemistically, we refer to an "educational revolution" when there is an abrupt break in the continuity of programs or practices, so that substantive changes take place in a short period of time. This is different from an innovation in which some new procedures are introduced gradually into the conventional format.

66. school age - the period within a person's life span when all who are deemed to be mentally and physically capable of doing so are either permitted or required to attend school. This generally extends from six or seven years of age to about sixteen, but with considerable variations within societies and from nation to nation.

67. social costs of education - the total investment that is made for all forms of learning by the entire community or government through the direct deployment of funds, materials and personnel; and the indirect investment in the form of lost or postponed productivity, shifts in aspirations and expectations.

68. syllabus - a formal, systematic statement of the content that is to be taught in an instructional program. It is often prepared and issued by a central authority, and used to inspect, supervise and evaluate teaching and learning.

69. technical training - preparation for skilled trades and specialized vocations provided either at vocational/technical schools or through adult non-formal courses.

70. triage - the policy of applying assistance only to development situations that are most likely to benefit from the intervention and be improved, rather than deploying scarce resources in desperately critical areas that may still remain nagging problems even after the effort has been made to help them. This concept comes from medical practices of providing first aid on the battle field where the casualties are classified according to the seriousness of their wounds. Those whose condition is life-endangering and terminal will not be treated until the people who can be saved by the medics have been attended to.

71. trickle down theory - the hypothesis that investing in the preparation of high level manpower, corporate production capacity, and the central government bureaucracy will eventually create new jobs, improved incomes, and better opportunities for the common people living in depressed local communities. The so called "supply side economics" has a similar rationale.

72. underdevelopment - the condition of stunted or unbalanced growth that is usually demonstrated by a lack of industrial and consumption infrastructures in comparison with industrialized, high consumption societies. The chief indicators of underdevelopment are: (1) relatively low per capita income, (2) high illiteracy, (3) poor nutrition and frequent famine, (4) limited mobility, (5) high mortality and low life expectancy.

73. undeveloped - places that are in their pristine, natural state - largely untouched by the values and ways of doing things brought about by the enlightenment, and the agrarian and industrial revolutions. Sometimes this primordial condition has been romanticized as "primitive" or "savage."

74. underemployment - persons who are working on a casual or part-time basis that is below the optimum for their levels of energy, learning and skill. The existence of large groups of people with enforced leisure creates many problems of discontent, frustration and welfare needs.

75. unemployment - people who previously had a recognized job in the production or service sectors of the economy, but who have been temporarily or permanently laid off. Villagers are seldom counted as unemployed because they are working on the land and often do not have jobs that are officially tabulated in the statistics. For this reason, unemployment figures often err by being unrealistically low.

76. Village Institute - a movement for rural enlightenment and revitalization that was originated and pioneered in Turkey during the 1930's by Ismail Hakki Tonguch and other indigenous educators. It has been adapted and applied in many Third World nations.

77. wastage - the degree of inefficiency of an educational system or institution due to dropouts, lack of retention of the things that were learned, or excessive costs in order to produce the desired outcomes. The concept is derived from dressmaking or tailoring, where some of the fabric becomes unusable remnants when the garment is cut out in order to be sewn.

78. web - a network of linkages among learning institutions and programs. Sometimes it is within a single nation and sometimes it is transnational.

79. welfare - the social domain of health, happiness and general well-being. A "welfare state" is a social system in which the government seeks to provide the basic necessities for all of its citizens. Welfare may be an euphemism for public relief.

80. xenophobia - being unduely hostile, contemptuous or fearful of strangers and foreign ideas or practices. This is especially reflected in chauvinistic political or cultural views, where native ways of doing things are always regarded as superior to anything adapted and borrowed from other societies.

There is a growing agreement that, ideally, nations should strive to evolve "lifelong learning systems" designed to provide every individual with a flexible and diversified range of useful learning options throughout his or her lifetime.

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